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ABSTRACT

This paper is one component of a collaborative research project being conducted by the National Commission for Employment Policy to explore the education, training, and employment issues that affect at-risk youth, aged 9-15 years old. The paper begins with a description of the dropout problem in the United States, noting that although the dropout rate has remained steady at about 25 percent for the past 3 decades, the dropout rate has become a problem recently because of the increase in high technology jobs and a need for people with more skills in the labor force. The paper focuses on dropouts first because of the relatively higher incidence of unemployment among high school dropouts as compared with high school graduates. Next comes a discussion of how to identify at-risk students still in school and how to develop programs that meet the needs of these special populations. The paper then outlines the educational legislation that pertains to the needs of the groups, with a particular interest in whether the legislation reaches youth at risk, aged 9-15. The Education Consolidation and Improvement Act is reviewed. Finally, the paper evaluates model programs to identify local efforts to meet the needs of these at-risk youth. Examples show what has been tried and what has been successful. The report concludes with recommendations for programs and legislation to benefit the at-risk group. The document includes 149 references and appendices detailing limitations of the survey of Chapter I coordinators and providing descriptions of model programs. (KC)

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An Investigation of Education Options for Youth-At-Risk, Ages 9 to 15: Demographics, Legislation and Model Programs

Karen C. Winters
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Raymond A. Winters

Research Report No. 88-10

May 1988

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This paper was prepared by Karen Crispell Winters, Mark Rubinstein and Raymond A. Winters under contract with the National Commission for Employment Policy. The opinions expressed in this paper are solely those of the authors, and do not necessarily represent the official views of the Commission.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The report begins with an introduction that identifies its intent and scope. Three sections then follow entitled Demographics, Legislation, and Model Programs. For each section, the reader is provided with an introduction and a summary. The report ends with Conclusions and Recommendations.

Demographics

Dropouts are indicators: they are a downward predictor of students who are and will be at-risk. Yet, the 9-15 at-risk group is difficult to quantify because their being at-risk is due to a variety of cumulative factors such as pregnancy, grade failure, low academic achievement relative to peers, below grade-level in reading, low socioeconomic status, having a parent who dropped out of school, and being a member of a traditionally disadvantaged group.

Legislation

The 9-15 group of disadvantaged youth is most dramatically affected by Chapter 1. H.R. 5 could strengthen the quality of Chapter 1 programs by holding the LEAs more responsible, by expanding programs, and by improving allocations in other areas. H.R. 5 has been reported out of the House of Representives, has gone to the Senate, and, as of the end of November, 1987, is expected to go to a conference committee. The future of Chapter 1 as well as fourteen other elementary and secondary education programs is at stake.

Model Programs

A number of factors form and affect the life styles of participatory members of a democratic society. Successful model programs pull together the various facets of a child's life. They provide the child with a team or collegial approach by enabling the home, community, government, and schools to work together and meet the needs of that pupil. Yet, one must realize that although schools contribute to the success of economically/educationally disadvantaged youth ages 9-15, educational institutions are not the prime investor in these children; therefore, we must recognize the limitations of model programs.

Recommendations

The authors of this research submit the following recommendations. These recommendations are not assigned an order as we feel they all are important.

- develop and implement a model collection system for data on dropouts
- use the aforementioned data as a basis for identifying groups-at-risk at the national level for policy and to fund programs
- train and inform teachers, counselors, and support personnel on how to identify youth-at-risk
- support school level and district level programs aimed at meeting the needs of at-risk students
- emphasize programs that bring students to grade level in reading and other basic skills (focus: early years)
- empower teachers to have more control in their own profession
- focus on a team approach as a means of solving problems of youth-at-risk
- weld together the various facets of a child's world by encouraging parents, teachers, business, government, and the community to participate in model programs
- support educational television
- educate the child for life to meet the changing demands of a technological society, not just to get a job
- educate the child not only in content-oriented curriculum but process-oriented curriculum
- recognize that the developmental years (9-15) for a child are fundamental to future life and economic success
- enable the child to make a successful transition to the adult world through innovative programs
- strengthen model programs for disadvantaged youth by providing a summer component
- request that business commit its fair share to fund training of its future workers

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This paper is part of a collaborative research project being conducted by the National Commission for Employment Policy (NCEP) and is entitled "Youth at Risk". It is an exploration of education, training, and employment issues that affect youth-at-risk, ages 9-15.

Among the concerns which prompt such an inquiry are the growing numbers of unemployed and seemingly unemployable young people in the United States. A line can be drawn which connects in-school problems, dropping out of school, and future unemployment or underemployment. This is not to suggest causality; instead it is essential to view these issues as co-occurring and cumulative symptoms with common underlying causes. One of the most important (and logically deduced) of these could be an absence of basic skills (e.g. below-grade-level reading). Lacking these, a child who is prevented from taking full advantage of educational opportunities and who is falling further behind, becomes a likely candidate to drop out of school. But the absence of these same basic skills continues to block the individual's progress in the work force, either to obtain a worthwhile employment opportunity with a decent future, or to progress toward one.

Those individuals who have already passed through the stages of formal schooling present a particular set of problems. They are already in trouble. If they have attained an age when remediation is more difficult or if they have already left school , it becomes more difficult to help them. Also, for these individuals who are at an age when they are either independent or responsible for others, the demands for income-employment are generally great. The priority for these individuals might be for specific employment training, with basic skills development, at least temporarily, relegated.

Students who are still in school, from the ages of 5-15, are those who are truly at-risk. They are in the early stages of an insidious disease which might ultimately lead to a life of poverty, poor health, inadequate housing and nutrition, and constant challenges to their self-esteem. All of these children are at-risk and deserve an opportunity to learn, to grow, and to succeed. Perhaps, those with the most urgent needs are the older children, ages 9-15, because they are rapidly approaching the point where the school continuation decision is too often made on the basis of in-school problems and made too rarely with an awareness of job made realities.

One of the great challenges to studying these children is that their population is difficult to define and to quantify. Their fate is the result of a variety of cumulative factors, but no one factor is so readily identifiable or singular as to serve as an accurate and exhaustive index for providing valid data about youth-at-risk. Instead, we turn to the dropout as a means of gauging the problem of schools failing to meet the needs of its students.

There are definite reasons behind this assumption. Students who have dropped out of school generally exhibit a history of school failure and low achievement. They are also likely to experience high rates of unemployment, under-employment and low wages. The connection of school failure, dropping out, and poor employment prospects suggests a continuum, and offers justification for the use of dropouts as a measurable marker of school failure, as well as facilitating planning for the pre-employment needs of youth-at-risk.

For this reason, this paper begins with a description of the dropout problem in the United States. Interestingly, the dropout rate has remained at a relatively stable level for the past three decades, about 25%. This figure represents an historically high level of school achievement. Yet, it is within this context that the "dropout problem" first surfaced and has frequently re-emerged. The reasons for this pertain not so much to the credential, a high school diploma, but instead to what the diploma is expected to represent. Until the last few decades, the labor market in this country was well-suited to absorb workers who lacked a high school diploma. Today, the demands of employment have begun to shift. An increase in high technology jobs and the growth of the service sector require individuals with specific competencies as well as decision-making skills. But there is no inherent connection between a high school diploma and these skills. If those individuals who leave school without a diploma were employable, there would be dropouts but no dropout problem. But again, the absence of skills which contribute to success in school are necessary for employability.

We focus on dropouts in the first section of this paper because of the relatively higher incidence of unemployment among high school dropouts as compared with high school graduates. Further, we note that high school dropouts who do find employment tend to hold jobs with lower wages, lower status, offering less satisfaction and affording fewer opportunities for personal and financial advancement. This apparently poor fit between dropouts and the labor market serves as the basis for evaluating the prospects of younger children. Viewing the dropout as a link between in-school youth-at-risk and young adults who are not as fully productive as they might be, we are able to assess the scope and magnitude of all two groups by making some inferences from the dropout data. More clearly, we are able to identify groups at-risk and to develop programs that meet the needs of these special populations.

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CHAPTER II

DEMOGRAPHICS

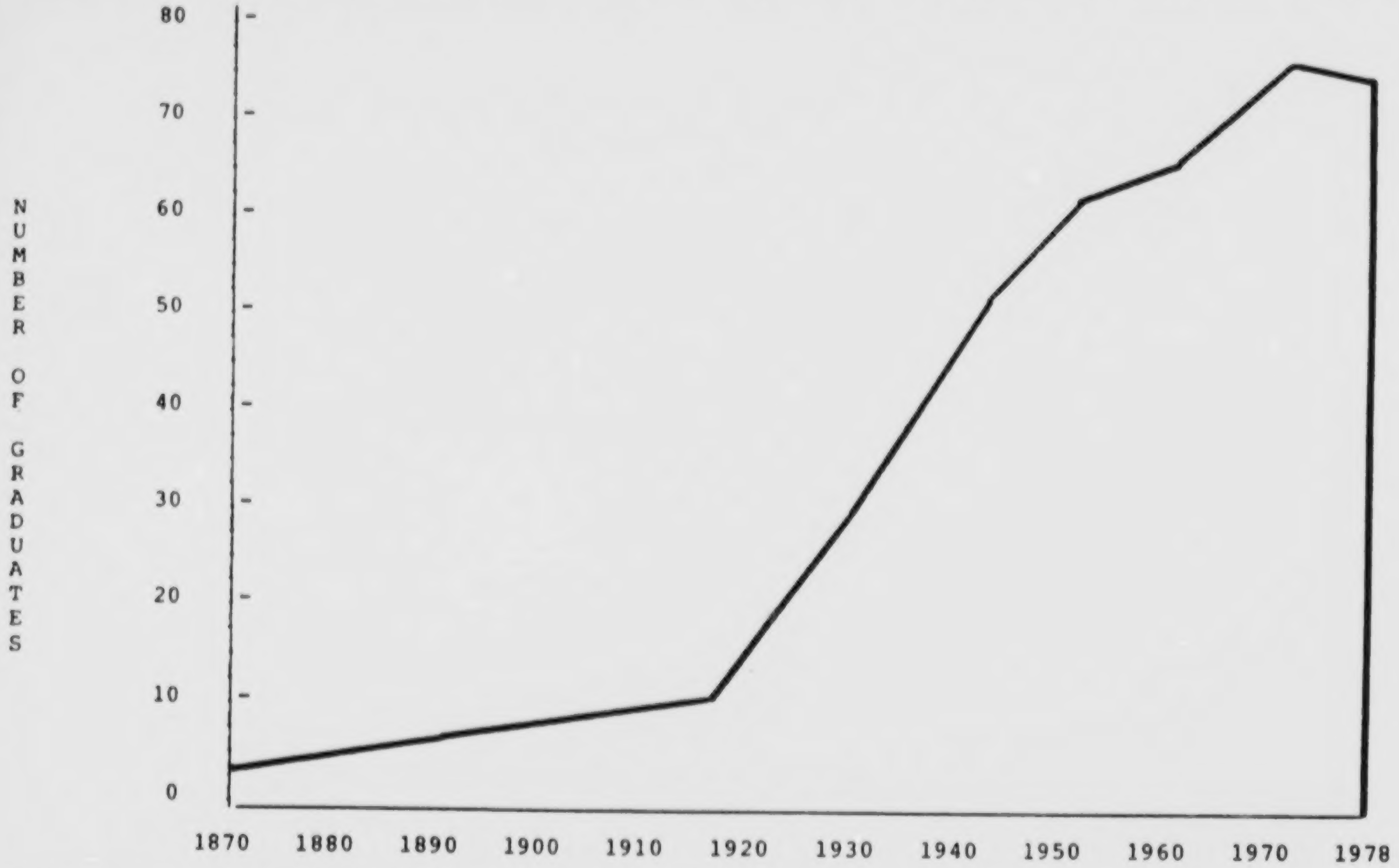
> The school dropout for all the authentic concern the public has recently shown is not a new phenomenon, but the *problem* of the school dropout is. A little more than fifteen years ago, when more students dropped out of school than graduated, there was no noticeable public concern.... Undoubtedly, the dropout problem has been brought into being by a multiplicity of factors, largely extrinsic to the school and peculiar to our times.
>
> Daniel Schreiber (1967, pp. 3-4)
> in *Profile of the School Dropout*

Written 20 years ago, the non-school factors cited by Schreiber as contributing to the school dropout problem (e.g. unemployment, technological restructuring of the labor market, intergenerational poverty) have proven to be lasting threads in the social, economic and political fabric of the United States. Population growth and technological advance have been essential elements in the historical development of this country since the time of the European invasion. What had changed by the 1950's and 1960's were the requirements of the United States' economy and the characteristics of the labor market.

The demand for more highly skilled workers had increased by the second half of this century. Also, the impact of landmark Civil Rights legislation was beginning to be felt as new employment opportunities were opening up for previously excluded minorities. With the post-World War II population surge, the number of unemployed young people rose dramatically. This attracted both public and political attention to school dropouts.

As Schreiber noted, what came to be characterized in the late 1950's and into the mid-1960's as the "dropout problem" was not a sudden occurrence. Paradoxically, the proportion of students who remained in school to receive a high school diploma was at an historically high level. In fact, since 1966, the graduation rate for students entering the fifth grade has remained virtually unchanged (Figure 1); however, in the midst of great social unrest and in the face of President Johnson's War on Poverty, even the elevated level of educational attainment was viewed as scandalous. It was within this *milieu* that the concept of leaving school prior to graduation - "dropping out" - first became a salient issue for educational researchers and government policymakers. Today, the dropout problem is still with us. Or, perhaps, it is more appropriate to suggest that the dropout has once again become "a problem".

Figure I. Number of high school graduates per 100 persons 17 years of age: U.S., 1869-70 to 1977-78.



Note. From Digest of Education Statistics 1980, (GPO Pub. No. 1980 629-174/2827), (p. 63) by W. Vance Grant and Leo J. Eiden, 1980, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Center for Education Statistics.

Background

A review of the literature over the past 30 years indicates a steady flow of research on dropouts. While it is readily apparent that such research peaked in the late 1950's through the mid-1960's, it has now, in the 1980's, begun to escalate once more. The perception of the dropout problem as critical at this time is further evidenced by the interest of Congress as expressed in the proposed Dropout Prevention and Reentry Act (H.R. 3042) and Title IX of the Education for Economic Security Act (S. 406), ("School Dropout Demonstration Assistance Act of 1987"). Implicit in the Senate's decision to nest dropout assistance within the Education for Economic Security Act is a recognition of the school's link to the economy. Keeping the United States viable in a world market which is growing increasingly competitive, requires that human potential be fully developed. Among the provisions of H.R. 3042 and S. 406 are demonstration grants for model programs in dropout identification, prevention, and reentry efforts as well as a mandate for the development of model collection systems for data on dropouts.

The impetus for such standardization of practice, beyond the severity of the dropout problem, is the recognized need for accurate information to set policy. One of the most significant barriers to progress in resolving the dropout issue has been the absence of an accurate and ongoing assessment of the scope and magnitude of the problem, its causes, predictive factors, and valid data concerning successful dropout prevention and remediation strategies. Most of the data currently available comes either from local school district reports or from national surveys (e.g. Bureau of the Census, Department of Labor). Additionally, the National Center for Education Statistics compiles data provided by school districts on various issues including school dropouts (Hammack, 1986 & 1987, p. 20). Though useful, each source of information is potentially problematic.

Among the problems to be dealt with in the interpretation of local school district data are inconsistencies in definitions of dropouts, methods of calculating dropout rates (both are discussed later) and the limited resources available to track students who transfer outside of a district or who simply stop attending school. Also, because attendance figures are used to calculate school district appropriations, motivations might exist to mis-classify some dropouts as still enrolled (Morrow, 1987, p. 40). Similarly, where evaluations of school adminstrators take into account dropout statistics (at the building or the district level), the possibility exists that a student who is no longer in attendance and whose status is unknown, or who is known to have dropped out, will be classified in a way which renders that dropout status unclear (Hammack, 1986 & 1987).

It is further suggested by many authors that owing to the disproportionate representation of ethnic, racial and linguistic minority students among the dropout population, concern about issues of educational equity might place additional pressure on administrators and on districts to "soften" dropout reports. This does not necessarily assert active deception. As will be discussed later, the inconsistencies which pervade definitions, data collection, and methods of calculation are such that several sets of disparate figures could be put forth by a school district to express its dropout rate. Each would be perfectly accurate and truthful, provided that information were available to explain data collection procedures and to facilitate interpretation. Further, if it is possible that schools and districts can legitimately minimize dropout rates for such purposes, it is equally possible that these figures can be maximized for political advantage as when funds are available for dropout-related programs.

Several authors (e.g. Hammack, 1986 & 1987) also discuss the challenge presented to school districts with regard to classifying students when the information is uncertain. Students who either drop out or move out of the school district during the summer might be indistinguishable from one another on school district reports. Insofar as school authorities are not always able to keep track of students moving in and out of districts, this is one of the advantages of the use of national versus local data collection. While school districts might be unable to gather information about the status of a particular student, aggregated national data would be expected to "find" that student. National surveys also have certain advantages with regard to consistency of definitions and calculations; however, to the extent that they are dependent upon consistent interpretation of prescribed definitions and reporting practices by those collecting data on the local level, there are still potential problems. Additionally, the time required to collect, calculate, and analyze national survey data might be viewed as a limitation of the methodology.

It should also be noted that national surveys which depend upon school districts to collect and submit data, are subject to the same sorts of manipulation and unintentional confusion as are to be found within the district reports themselves. Finally, while national studies are useful in documenting the extent of the dropout problem and for providing comparative data, it is still necessary to work with accurate local data for program development at the district and building levels where the dropout problem must ultimately be confronted. Prior to presenting the best available data, this section will focus on

- o definitions of the dropout
- o problems in counting

- dropout as characteristic of the individual at a particular time (Barro & Kolstad, 1987).
- drop-ins and completers

Methodological Considerations

It should be noted at the outset that the research into methodological concerns about data collection on dropouts is an active area of inquiry. While there is general agreement about the need for standardization of practices in coding and reporting, there is still no actual concensus with regard to definitions and methods. Rather then attempting to catalog all of the suggestions for change, this paper will present an overview of basic considerations that are necessary for understanding the data which are currently available.

Having identified the various issues involved in data collection, this section will then present information about dropouts in the general population and particularly with reference to "groups at risk". It will also explore various factors which have been shown to correlate strongly with student decisions to leave school along with student, family, and school characteristics which seem to be valuable as early predictors of school dropouts.

Definitions of "Dropout"

In order to quantify the dropout problem, it is first essential to define the "dropout." A cursory review of the research on dropping out, conducted from the late 1950's to the present, indicates that the concept has often failed to receive an explicit definition. In the absence of a clearly and consistently defined category (or a set of categories), researchers, policymakers, and the public have been forced to rely upon "common sense" definitions, but the concept of the dropout can be ambiguous. To classify a dropout as someone who "leave(s) school before graduating" (Wheelock, 1986, p. 9) is accurate, but at the same time it is too simplistic. The simplification aggregates too many factors, distorting perceptions of both the problem and possible solutions.

Government sources can be equally accurate and equally simplistic. "School dropouts in the Current Population Survey (CPS) are defined as persons who are neither enrolled in school nor are high school graduates." (Gainer, 1986 , p. 5). Again, the definition provides no information which differentiates between early and late dropouts and their reasons for leaving. Both are vital pieces of information for any effort at remediation of the dropout problem.

Morrow (1986, 1987, p. 39) identifies several categories of students to which the term "dropout" has been applied

> The term 'dropout' has been used to designate a variety of early school leavers: (1) pushouts--undesirable students; (2) disaffiliated--students no longer wishing to be associated with the schools; (3) educational mortalities--students failing to complete a program; (4) capable dropouts--family socialization did not agree with school demands; and (5) stopouts--dropouts who return to school, usually within the same academic year.

Morrow then proposes a definition of the dropout as

> ...any student, previously enrolled in a school, who is no longer actively enrolled as indicated by fifteen days of consecutive unexcused absence, who has not satisfied local standards for graduation, and for whom no formal request has been received signifying enrollment in another state-licensed educational institution (p. 49).

A definition such as this, if adopted as standard practice, would be helpful in determining the total number of students who leave school prior to graduation; however, the concern with this definition is, again, that it continues to aggregate the dropout population.

Barro & Kolstad (1987) offer an important distinction in the definition of dropouts: "dropping out as an event and being a dropout as a characteristic of an individual at a particular time" (p. 9). The first definition, which they refer to in calculating the "gross" dropout rate, identifies individuals who have left school prior to graduation "... for at least some specified minimum time" (p.9). The shortcoming of this definition by itself is that it neglects the relatively large number of students who are classified as dropouts, who do actually complete high school or its equivalent (usually the General Educational Development certificate). The definition of a "dropout" as a characteristic of an individual at a particular time takes into account those students who either return to school or complete high school or an equivalency program; this produces the "net" dropout rate. This distinction helps to explain the disparity between various published figures of the dropout rate (Barro & Kolstad, 1987, p. 10). (As will be discussed later, an effort must be made to study the effects of delayed completion and alternative credentials on employment, wages, and post-secondary education. In the interim, it is important, as will be shown, to make such distinctions in dropout reporting.)

In addition to the question of defining the condition of school-leaving which constitutes dropping out, other elements also appear to be variable in defining the population of potential dropouts. It is necessary to be clear and consistent in identifying students who are dropouts or potential dropouts. Hammack (1986) provides several examples of ambiguity in data collection between districts. Among them, he cites decisions to include or exclude students enrolled in special education classes, those attending night school (p. 21), and those enrolled in trade schools (p. 24). Whether students who fall into these categories or others (e.g. "alternative" programs) are to be counted as in school and thus as potential dropouts, is important, not only for reasons of statistical accuracy, but because of the political ramifications related to dropping out (i.e. issues of educational equity). If a disproportionate number of racial, ethnic, and linguistic minorities participate in such programs, and if failing to complete is not counted as dropping out, then the alarming drop out rates already being reported for these groups are inappropriately low.

Another consideration is that high school graduation or its equivalent might not be an adequate criterion for declaring an individual as not a "dropout". Pallas (1986) points out the limited research which has been conducted into the relative value of alternative credentials. Given the growing number of high school completers with alternative credentials, this appears to be an important research area. In this same vein, it seems essential to investigate the effects of delayed graduation on employment, wages and post-secondary education.

Dropout as Characteristic of the Individual at a Particular Time

The distinction made by Barro & Kolstad (1987, p. 10) between dropping out as an event vs. dropout as a characteristic of the individual at a particular time, serves to point out the relatively large proportion of dropouts who eventually return to school to receive a high school diploma or an "equivalent" credential. Gainer (1986: p. 20), referring to an issue brief by the Congressional Research Service, notes a figure of approximately 50 percent eventual completion by dropouts. Kolstad & Owings (1986, p. 12) in analyzing data from the High School and Beyond study found that "...four out of ten dropouts (38 percent) completed their diploma requirements by spring of 1984...one out of ten dropouts (13 percent) had returned to school but either failed to graduate or were still enrolled at this time". The authors are careful to point out that owing to limitations of the study, an educated "guess" as to the total number of returnees among all dropouts, including those who left school prior to the second semester of the sophomore year, would put the completion figure closer to 30 percent two years after the expected date of graduation.

Despite consistent findings that those who do drop out earlier are less likely to return and to complete high school, there are equally consistent findings that the 50 percent eventual completion rate for dropouts is valid. This is in line with Bureau of the Census data which places the high school completion rate for all 18 year olds at around 75 percent and for all 30-34 year olds at 87.3 percent (Current Population Report, Series P-20, no. 409, 1986, p. 9). Yet, if alternative credentials or delayed completion proves to be less valuable than the timely completion of high school diploma requirements, then at what point does the value of such completion diminish and at what point does focus on achievement of the product--high school completion-- become less valuable than clearly defined employment training?

Study on both of these areas is necessary. Barro & Kolstad (1987, p. 10) identify "dropout", as a characteristic of the individual, as being "time dependent". But in defining the dropout problem, it might be necessary to place a restriction on the time period for completion (and possibly the inclusion of alternative credentials). If the real question is one of effect, it must then be asked, "At what point does the delay in receiving the credential render it relatively less valuable or marketable?" While being a dropout is not necessarily an irreversible characteristic, perhaps the "dropout effect" is permanent.

A working definition of "dropout" has to move beyond the realm of credentialing to take into account the progression of challenges which confront youth-at-risk. It must recognize the processes which have contributed to the student's school-leaving as well as the precarious position of this individual at the threshold of the labor market. The dropout who has struggled with schooling will find little relief in the demands of employment. The "symptoms" which contribute to the likelihood of dropping out -- e.g. low academic achievement, poor reading skills -- will, undoubtedly, have a persistent and detrimental influence on the dropout's employment prospects and outcomes.

Unemployability, underemployability and the absence of skills which would serve as the basis for employment training for dropouts should be seen as symptoms of a larger problem. Perhaps, the least efficacious time to attempt remediation of the critical basic skills is at the point when the individual has dropped out. Faced with economic and social pressures to find employment, skills training and acquisition of knowledge must contend with the demands of typically menial and mind numbing jobs. In this sense, dropping out is a cumulative process rather than an event. At the time at which an individual can be identified as a dropout, great damage has already been done and valuable time, lost.

For these reasons, it is essential that recognition be given to the dynamic nature of the dropping-out process including its antecedents and outcomes. If a continuum is identified linking predictive factors, dropping out and unemployment due to lack of skills for employment training then the term "dropout", as it refers to non-completion of high school, becomes a painfully overdue indicator of a problem in the processes of schooling. Therefore, a truly useful working definition of "dropout" -- one which will offer some basis for hope and for change -- must begin with the earliest stages of the process.

Ideally, some of the predictive factors should be used as the working definition for identifying youth-at-risk. Rather than a dropout problem, attention should be focused on the "below-grade level in reading problem" or the "parent who dropped out of school problem", because these factors show strong correlation with later dropping out, and each can be identified and remediated at an earlier age. In the interim, the dropout, defined as an individual who is neither enrolled in school nor a high school graduate, remains the most readily identifiable (and quantifiable) marker of a breakdown in the schooling system, reflected in both skill acquisition and achievement in school and employability outside of school.

Problems in Counting

Beyond defining the dropout, a great deal of inconsistency also exists in methods of counting. While this is not inherently problematic, failure to explicitly identify the method used and the significance of the data, can produce misleading information. This becomes more confusing when compared to or integrated with data developed through other methods.

An initial step in the calculation of dropout rates is to identify the population from which potential dropouts are to be counted. This, in turn, is a function of the method used. The basic methods for computing dropout rates are: cross-sectional; projections from cross-sectional data; and cohort.[1] Morrow (1986 & 1987, p. 43) suggests that a great deal of variability exists, even within each type of calculations owing to several factors. Specifically noted are "time frame", "student accounting procedures", and "range of grade levels".[2] All three elements represent important methodological concerns. While time frame [calendar year (12 months) vs. school year (nine or 10 months)] and student accounting procedures (Average Daily Attendance vs. Average Daily Membership) are certain to produce measurable discrepancies, perhaps the most significant area of discrepancy affecting comparability of research pertains to range of grade levels.

An excellent example of this problem is to be found in the *High School and Beyond Study of the Sophomore Class of 1980* In this study, dropout rates were calculated using the population of sophomores still in school in the spring of 1980 as the baseline population. When the data from the *High School and Beyond* survey were evaluated in *School Dropouts: The Extent and Nature of the Problem* (Gainer, 1986, p. 9), a footnote indicated that " ... because some youth leave school before the second half of their sophomore year, the estimates from *High School and Beyond* understate the dropout rate."

Barro & Kolstad went even further with this warning as they were careful to note that "one of the most serious limitations of this study" is its inability to yield data concerning those students who would have been members of the sophomore cohort had they not dropped out earlier and noting that the number of such[3] students is likely to be "substantial"(1987, p. 8). In fact, since the majority of students who drop out of school apparently do so at the age when compulsory education ends, usually 16 (Greene, 1966; Williams, 1985) and insofar as the majority of dropouts are at least one, if not two or more years behind grade level (Barro & Kolstad, 1987, p. 47; Gainer, 1986, p. 15; Wheelock, 1986, p. 8), then it seems logical that an estimate of the number of dropouts should involve an earlier grade level.

A more visible example of the influence of grade levels included in calculating dropout rates can be observed through the data shown in Table 1.[4] Table 1 illustrates the estimated retention rate per 1000 students entering the fifth grade in selected years in both private and public schools in the United States.

As Table 1 indicates, the retention rate for groups of students entering grade five is, and has been, relatively high and consistent through the fall of grade ten (approximately 91-98% during the period in which "classes" that had entered grade five from fall 1958 through fall 1979 inclusive, have reached grade ten). However, by the fall of grade eleven, an appreciable decline in retention is exhibited. As the figures in Table 1 indicate, the number of students entering grade eleven [for classes which had entered grade five in years 1958-1979 inclusive] represents a five to ten percent decline from the preceding year and about 12%-16% from grade five.

Owing at least in part to compulsory attendance laws, the population of students who occupy a progression of grade levels over time appears relatively stable from grades five through nine. While the population is still relatively intact in the fall of the tenth year, it is during this twelve month period that significant numbers of students leave school.

Table 1

Numbers (N) and Percentage (%) of Selected Fifth Grade Cohorts that Graduate from Both Public and Private High Schools

Number of students retained per thousand in selected fifth grade cohorts				Number and percentages of students graduating from high school per thousand in selected fifth grade cohorts				
Year Entered Grade 5	5	10	11	Year	(N)	%-5	%-10	%-11
1924-25	1000	470	384	1932	302	30.2	64.3	78.6
1926-27	1000	552	453	1934	333	33.3	60.3	73.5
1928-29	1000	624	498	1936	378	37.8	60.6	75.9
1930-31	1000	652	529	1938	417	41.7	64.0	78.8
1932-33	1000	664	570	1940	455	45.5	68.5	79.8
1934-35	1000	711	610	1942	467	46.7	65.7	76.6
1936-37	1000	704	554	1944	393	39.3	55.8	70.9
1938-39	1000	655	532	1946	419	41.9	64.0	78.8
1940-41	1000	697	566	1948	481	48.1	69.0	85.0
1942-43	1000	713	604	1950	505	50.5	70.8	83.6
1944-45	1000	748	650	1952	522	52.2	69.8	80.3
1946-47	1000	775	641	1954	553	55.3	71.4	86.3
1948-49	1000	795	706	1956	581	58.1	73.1	82.3
1950-51	1000	809	709	1958	582	58.2	71.9	82.1
1952-53	1000	835	746	1960	621	62.1	74.4	83.2
1954-55	1000	855	759	1962	642	64.2	75.1	84.6
1956-57	1000	871	790	1964	676	67.6	77.6	85.6
Fall '58	1000	908	842	1966	732	73.2	80.6	86.9
Fall '60	1000	913	858	1968	749	74.9	82.0	87.3
Fall '62	1000	928	860	1970	750	75.0	80.8	87.2
Fall '64	1000	942	865	1972	748	74.8	79.4	86.5
Fall '66	1000	959	871	1974	744	74.4	77.6	85.4
Fall '68	1000	958	869	1976	749	74.9	78.2	86.2
Fall '70	1000	963	883	1978	746	74.6	77.5	84.5
Fall '72	1000	984	886	1980	744	74.4	75.6	84.0
Fall '74	1000	973	883	1982	754	75.4	77.5	85.4
Fall '75	1000	979	884	1983	760	76.0	77.6	86.0

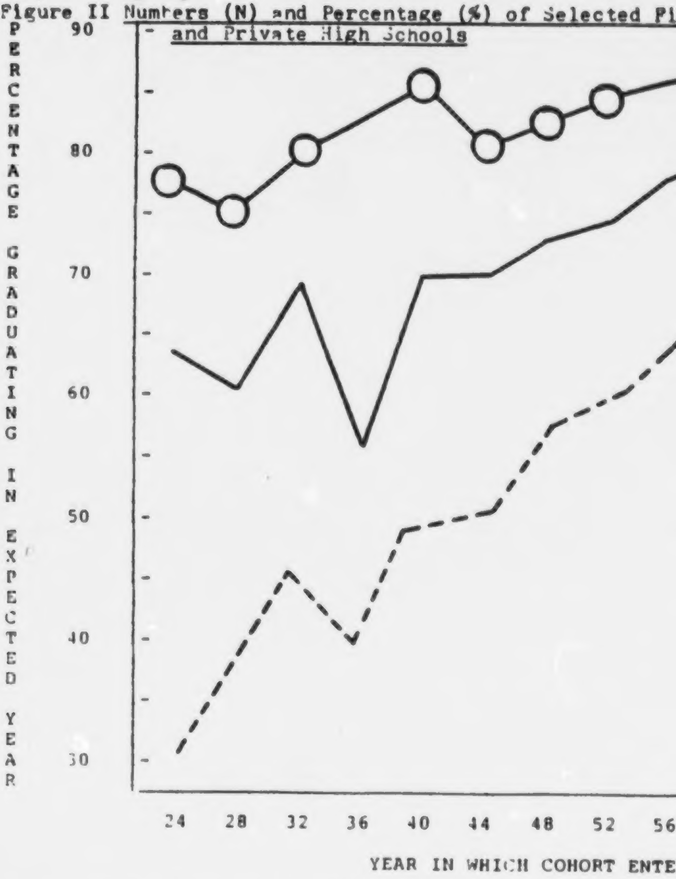
Note. From *Digest of Education Statistics* (p.15) by W. Vance Grant and Leo J. Eiden, 1982, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Center for Educational Statistics.

Thus, if the number of students who are still enrolled in grade twelve or the number who are graduated is computed as a function of the number of students who had still been enrolled in the second semester of the sophomore year (when many of the students who are going to dropout will have already done so), it will necessarily produce a higher apparent retention rate than if the number of students still enrolled in the senior year were to be calculated as a function of the population of students enrolled at a point in time between grades five through nine .[5] This is presented in Figure 2. Apparently, calculations based upon enrollment figures from the beginning of the sophomore year forward are highly variable and are likely to result in overly conservative estimates of the dropout population. These problems with counting should also be recognized for their critical importance with regard to model programs and legislation. If grade ten is already too late in the schooling process to accurately count dropouts, it is most certainly too late to reach "at-risk" students with programs aimed at dropout prevention, much less academic, intellectual and personal enrichment.

The Dropout as an Indicator of Youth-at-Risk

The individual who has dropped out is already in trouble; it is among potential dropouts that one finds youth who are truly at risk. And logically, it is to this group, 9-15 and perhaps younger, that programs should be targeted. As stated earlier with regard to a working definition of a dropout, the event represents a relatively advanced stage on a continuum. There are two interrelated factors which make dropping out important. First, it is more readily identifiable than the amalgam of problems which precede and contribute to its occurrence (e.g. reading below grade level, low achievement, truancy). Second, the dropout exists in and points out an unstructured void in our educational and social systems. While various programs exist to address the aforementioned problems within the school, once the student leaves school remediation becomes more difficult, not only for the schools but for society. Hence, in this society, we consider it inherently worthwhile to retain students in school until graduation. For the student who is not making satisfactory academic progress, graduation will not come, and after twelve years of schooling, a certificate of attendance represents too little reward and too little motivation to stay in school, particularly if one perceives that much of the responsibility for the student's problems rests with the school. And, if the achievement of a diploma or certificate is not accompanied by the acquistion of those basic skills which it is supposed to represent, and which will afford the individual a real opportunity to achieve farther and to succeed, then schooling becomes a mockery. This is as apparent to the student as it is to the public.

Figure II Numbers (N) and Percentage (%) of Selected Pi
and Private High Schools



Note. From Digest of Education Statistics (p.15) by W.
Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office o
Improvement, Center for Educational Statistics.

(%) of Selected Fifth Grade Cohorts that Graduage from Both Public
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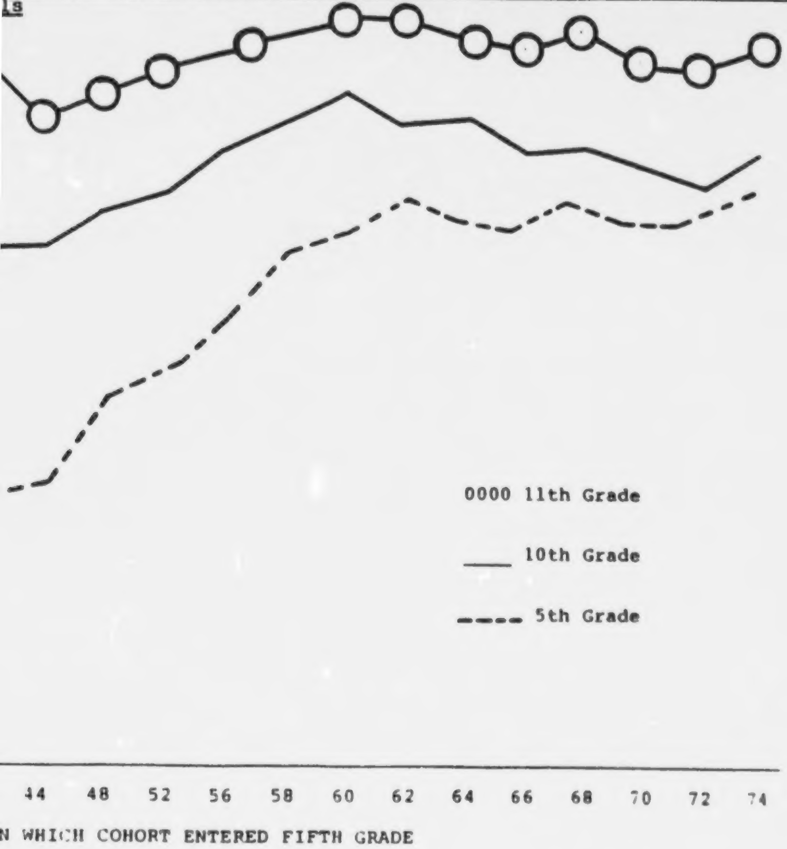

istics (p.15) by W. Vance Grant and Leo J. Eiden, 1982.
Education, Office of Educational Research and
Statistics.

Alternatively, one must arrest the growth of the potential dropout earlier in the process. By meeting the needs of students at an age when skill development is paramount, the children become equipped to grapple with content, either in school or in the work place. Such skill development, accompanied by an appreciation for learning, must necessarily be afforded to youth-at-risk before they become old enough to pass from at-risk to in-trouble.

Statistics

The proportion of students who graduate from high school each year represents approximately three-fourths (75 percent) of the 18 year old population (Mann, 1986 & 1987; Pallas, 1986; Wehlage, 1983). The Department of Education places the annual dropout rate at approximately 29.1 percent (cited in H.R. Report 99-706, 1986). Even the more conservative of these figures places the annual number of dropouts at around three-quarters of a million people who leave school without a diploma. As has already been illustrated in Table 1, this proportion has been relatively stable since 1958 which suggests a strong measure of the figure's validity given the social changes of the past three decades (Mann, 1986 & 1987).

According to the Bureau of the Census (1986, pp. 8-9), the total number of individuals age 16-24 years who were identified as dropouts was 4,324,000 (all figures are approximate). This represents approximately 14 percent of the 16-24 year old population, a figure which has held constant (between 13-14%) for the past 10 years. For the population, age 16-34, the number of dropouts was approximately 9,818,000.

Males represented 52.4 percent of the dropouts age 16-24 (2.26 million) while females represented 47.6 percent (2.06 million). Among the 16-34 year old population males represented 50.4 percent (4.95 million) and females represented 49.6 percent (4.87 million).

Owing to variations within particular age ranges, it is not possible to claim definitively that males are becoming more prone to dropping out than had been the case previously; however, most studies are in agreement that males are more likely to drop out than females. The larger proportion of dropouts who are male was found in both age ranges for each group with the exception of blacks, age 16-34. These findings are also largely consistent with the results obtained by Barro & Kolstad (1987) in their final report on the data from High School and Beyond. Calculating the "gross" dropout rate, Barro & Kolstad found a higher incidence of males than females leaving school prior to graduation among whites, blacks Hispanics, American Indians and Asians (p. 18).

In terms of the racial/ethnic composition of the dropout population, the Current Population Survey (CPS) only provides data under the classifications "white", "black", and "Spanish origin". This will necessarily shape the content of the following section; however, an effort has been made to incorporate data on other "groups-at-risk".

The CPS data tend to be somewhat confusing because according to Bureau of the Census procedures, individuals of Spanish origin may be of any race, and so a large part of the Hispanic population is double counted under both "Spanish origin" and a particular racial group. Therefore, the sum of the number of dropouts from the three groups is greater than the total number of dropouts reported. As Table 2 indicates, as of October 1985, the total population of dropouts age 16-24 is 4.324 million. Of this number, 3.47 million are identified as white (80.3 %), .724 million are identified as black (16.7 %), and .797 million are of Spanish origin (18.4 %).

Underlying the mathematical impossibility which these figures present is an important political issue. The figures presented in this report can be compared with those published in the GAO report School Dropouts: The Extent and Nature of the Problem (Gainer, 1986). Drawn from the same CPS data, that report correctly identifies "4.3 million dropouts", of whom "3.5 million" are white, "700,000" are black, and "100,000 are other races".

Lost in these figures, because they are not classified as a racial group, are Hispanics who represent a larger percentage of the total dropout population than do blacks. The concern is that if analysis of the CPS data subsumes the Hispanic population under racial labels, then the needs of that group might not receive adequate attention, nor be met with effective, informed policy. This issue is likely to be as much political as it is methodological and it bears careful consideration.

Rumberger (1983, p. 200) reported findings which are consistent with other analyses of the racial/ethnic composition of the dropout population. His data, from 1979, were based on the National Longitudinal Study of Youth Labor Market Experience. Rumberger identified dropout rates for youth ages 14-21 years old, by age, race, and sex (Table 3). As Table 3 indicates, blacks (15%) and Hispanics (23%) are more likely to leave school prior to graduation than are whites (10%).

Interestingly, when Barro & Kolstad (1987, pp. 20-21) controlled for the effects of certain background variables, the dropout rates for blacks became lower than the rate for whites. Similarly, when the dropout rates for Hispanics were "controlled" for the same variables, the rates between white and Hispanic males became identical (16.0 %), although the rates for females and for the entire group were still slightly higher for Hispanics than for whites.

Table 2

High School Graduates as a Percentage of Group Populations, 16 to 24 and 16 to 34, by Sex, Race, and Spanish Origin

Age group, sex, race and Spanish Origin	Total Population Number	Total Population Percent	Not enrolled in high school/ Not high school graduate number	Not enrolled in high school/ Not high school graduate percent
All races, both sexes, 16 to 24	34,382	100.0	4,324	12.6
All races, both sexes, 16 to 34	75,313	100.0	9,818	13.0
All races, male, 16 to 24	16,892	100.0	2,264	13.4
All races, male, 16 to 34	36,905	100.0	4,948	13.4
All races, female, 16 to 24	17,490	100.0	2,060	11.8
All races, female, 16 to 34	38,408	100.0	4,871	12.7
White, both sexes, 16 to 24	28,578	100.0	3,474	12.2
White, both sexes, 16 to 34	63,165	100.0	7,839	12.4
White, male, 16 to 24	14,145	100.0	1,840	13.0
White, male, 16 to 34	31,254	100.0	4,024	12.9
White, female, 16 to 24	14,433	100.0	1,634	11.3
White, female, 16 to 34	31,911	100.0	3,815	12.0
Black, both sexes, 16 to 24	4,800	100.0	725	15.1
Black, both sexes, 16 to 34	9,700	100.0	1,654	17.1

Table 2

High School Graduates as a Percentage of Group Populations, 16 to 24 and 16 to 34, by Sex, Race, and Spanish Origin (continued)

Age group, sex, race and Spanish Origin	Total Population Number	%	Not enrolled in high school Number	Not high school graduate Percent
Black, male, 16 to 34	4,457	100.0	775	17.4
Black, female, 16 to 24	2,534	100.0	361	14.2
Black, female, 16 to 34	5,244	100.0	879	16.8
Spanish origin, both sexes, 16 to 24	2,886	100.0	797	27.6
Spanish origin, both sexes, 16 to 34	6,165	100.0	2,113	34.3
Spanish origin, male, 16 to 24	1,473	100.0	439	29.8
Spanish origin, male, 16 to 34	3,112	100.0	1,081	34.7
Spanish origin, female, 16 to 24	1,413	100.0	358	25.3
Spanish origin, female, 16 to 34	3,053	100.0	1,032	33.8

[1] Persons of Spanish origin may be of any race

Note. From Current Population Reports-Population Characteristics Series P-20 No. 409, (p. 8-9). by U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1986, Washington, DC: Author.

Table 3

High School Dropout Rates for Youths 14 to 21 Years Old, by Age, Race, and Sex: 1979

	Ages				
Sex and Race	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-21	Total
Black	2	10	24	25	15
Female	2	8	22	20	14
Male	1	12	25	30	17
Hispanic	2	17	36	35	23
Female	2	17	39	33	24
Male	3	18	32	38	22
White	2	8	16	12	10
Female	1	9	14	11	9
Male	2	8	17	13	10
Total	2	9	18	15	11

Note. Table from: Rumberger, Russell W., "High School Dropout Rates for Youth 14 to 21 Years Old, by Age, Race, Sex: 1979, "AERJ, 20, 1983, p. 200. Copyright 1983, American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC. Adapted by permission.

Early vs. Late Dropouts

Another means of analyzing the dropout population by race/ethnicity is found in Table 4. Based on CPS data, cited in the Digest of Education Statistics (U.S. Department of Education, 1987, pp. 14-15), it permits a distinction to be made between "early dropouts" (those who leave school prior to entering grade 9) and "late dropouts", who leave school some time after entering grade 9. This is potentially significant because of findings that those who drop out later are more likely to return and to complete high school than those who leave school earlier (Kolstad & Owings, 1986, p.13).

As the table indicates, in 1985 the late dropout rate was 90.6 percent for whites age 18-19; the figure for blacks was 88.1 percent; and for Hispanics it was 74.8 percent. Among the population age 20-24, the figures were 74.2 percent for whites, 84.2 percent for blacks, and 50.0 percent for Hispanics. For ages 25-29 the late dropout rate was 70.0 percent for whites, 82.5 percent for blacks, and 41.8 percent for Hispanics. Finally, for ages 30-34, the figures were 63.1 percent for whites, 72.7 percent for blacks, and 38.1 percent for Hispanics.

The relatively higher proportion of late dropouts among blacks age 20-34 might account, to some degree, for the narrowing gap between black and white high school completion rates. While Hispanics still lag far behind both blacks and whites in this regard, the relative progress shown among Hispanics ages 18-19 might be a reason for some optimism. Perhaps the first steps in dropout prevention are to be found in the ability of schools to hold potential dropouts longer, thereby increasing the likelihood of completion.

For other racial/ethnic groups data is somewhat limited. Kan & Liu (1986, p. 21) offer additional findings on the educational achievement of Asian Americans. Their 1980 sample survey provides data on the years of school completed by population age 25 years and over. The results of their survey are summarized in Table 5.

It would be misleading to attempt to integrate this data directly with the CPS data presented above for several reasons. First, the population age 25 years and over represents a substantially larger and more variable population than the group age 18-34. Obviously the former group includes much of the population whose formal schooling occured at a time when a high school diploma was considered less essential, either for social reasons or for employment. Second, the time factor is also relevant with regard to racial and ethnic discrimination. Though still occuring, it was likely to have had a different and probably greater impact on the educational attainment of various minority groups in the past. The population age 25 years and over aggregates not only ages but also the social climate of the period in which each age group entered and progressed through school.

Table 4

Early (Prior to Grade 9) vs. Late Dropout Rates, by Age, Race and Spanish Origin, 1985--U.S.

(Numbers in thousands)

Age, Race and Spanish Origin	Total Population	Non-Completers[2] Total Number	Non-Completers[2] Percent	Early Dropouts Number	Early Dropouts Percent[3]	Late Dropouts[2] Number	Late Dropouts[2] Percent[3]
White,							
18-19 year olds	6,051	2,152	34.1	213	9.4	1,949	90.6
20-24 year olds	17,172	2,701	15.7	697	25.8	2,004	74.2
25-29 year olds	17,829	2,347	13.2	703	30.0	1,644	70.0
30-34 year olds	16,846	1,888	11.2	696	36.9	1,192	63.1
Black,							
18-19 year olds	1,092	536	49.1	64	11.9	472	88.1
20-24 year olds	2,694	549	20.4	87	15.8	462	84.2
25-29 year olds	2,617	508	19.4	89	17.5	419	82.5
30-34 year olds	2,289	491	21.4	134	27.3	357	72.7
Spanish Origin,							
18-19 year olds	626	373	40.4	94	25.2	279	74.8
20-24 year olds	1,768	724	40.1	362	50.0	362	50.0
25-29 year olds	1,693	661	39.0	385	58.2	276	41.8
30-34 year olds	1,397	620	44.4	384	61.9	236	38.1

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[1] Persons of Spanish origin may be of any race and are,therefore, double counted under races.

The figures given for"non-completers"and"late dropouts"are not necessarily the same as one will find for "dropouts". These figures are based on statistics for years of school completed. Because some individuals who have been retained in grade level will have remained in school but not completed a particular graduated, they are counted as non-completers although they are not necessarily dropouts. Similarly, a large proportion of dropouts will eventually return to school or complete equivalency programs accounting for the progressive decline in non-completion rates over time. The purpose of this chart, to display the growing proportion of students who are remaining in school longer--including those who do represent potential dropouts--is not altered by these considerations. The basic point to be stressed is that students who stay inschool longer are more likely to eventually complete high school or equivalency programs.

Percent of dropouts, both early and late, represents the percentage of each category of dropout from the total number of non-completers.

Note. From Digest of Education Statistics (pp. 14-5) by Thomas D.. Snyder, 1987, Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Center for Ed. Statistics.

Table 5

Years of School Completed by Population 25 Years and Over, by Race, 1980

Race	Number	High School Dropouts (%)
White	109,999	30.3
Black	13,013	48.8
Hispanic	6,549	57.0
Chinese	24,566	29.1
Japanese	23,735	18.0
Pilipino	22,608	25.8
Korean	9,280	21.7
Asian Indian	12,024	20.4
Vietnamese	8,159	37.8

Note: Data for 1980 are based on samples (5 percent sample for Asian Americans, one-in-one thousand B sample for other groups.

Note: From "The Educational Status of Asian Americans: An Update from the 1980 Census" by Stephen H. Kan and William T. Liu, 1986, P/AAMHRC Research Review, 5, p. 21. Copyright owner unknown.

To separately and accurately affix the varying influences of social climate over time for each group would be impossible. Finally, the data offers no delineation between Asian Americans born in the United States and those who are immigrants, nor does it distinguish between immigrants as to the length of residence in the United States; thus, it is unclear whether education took place in this country or in the country of origin. Despite these conundrums, it would be injudicious to exclude this data, particularly in light of the paucity of available information relating to dropping out among Asian Americans.

Computing the total percentage of each group to complete fewer than four years of high school (graduation), Kan & Liu's data yield the following dropout rates for the population of each group age 25 years and over

o	Japanese	18.0%
o	Asian Indians	20.4%
o	Koreans	21.7%
o	Pilipinos	25.8%
o	Chinese	29.1%
o	Vietnamese	37.8%
o	white	30.3%
o	black	48.8%
o	Hispanic	57.0%

(Based on data presented in Table 5)

For reasons previously cited, these figures must be interpreted carefully. However, what is immediately visible in these figures is that all of the Asian American groups, except for the Vietnamese, had higher apparent high school completion rates than the other three groups. Although non-completion for Vietnamese was higher than for whites, it was still appreciably lower than the figures reported for both blacks and Hispanics. It is uncertain as to why this difference exists; however, Kan & Liu (1986, p. 24) cite the "selective immigration of well-educated Asians" as a possible factor contributing to educational attainment among Asian Americans. Given the information which suggests the importance of certain factors, including parental educational attainment in predicting educational outcomes for children, it is possible that selective immigration would contribute to higher school completion rates.

For some groups, racial, ethnic, and otherwise, the available information is minimal. Published figures on Native Americans place the overall dropout rate as high as 48 percent, with rates as high as 85 percent in certain urban settings (Institution for Educational Leadership, 1986).

Another group which requires attention is that of migrant youth. Although precise data about the current population is not readily available, Picou (1982) placed the number of school age migrant youth in the late 1970's at 300,000, and the dropout rate at about 90 percent. While the number of school age migrant children has undoubtedly increased in the past decade (including the newly poor "urban migrants"), there is no information to suggest that high school completion rates have improved for this group. In light of the Immigration Control and Reform Act of 1986 (P.L. 99-603), it is likely that the visibility and the reported numbers of school age migrant youth will increase as previously illegal aliens become documented. Immigration and Naturalization Service estimates place the total number of eligible aliens likely to come forward at approximately two million. The impact is likely to be observed as more of these children enter the jurisdiction of United States school systems. A very significant challenge exists to provide satisfactory education and economic opportunity for these students who will likely bring with them the accumulated effects of low socio-economic status, limited parental education, and linguistic factors, all pointing toward a high probability of dropping out.

Several sources also cite the exacerbated dropout rates for minorities, such as blacks, Puerto Ricans, and Hispanics collectively, in large, urban settings (Pallas, 1986; Wheelock, 1986). While "urbanicity" might be viewed more as a contributing factor than as the criterion for a group, it would seem worthwhile to consider the implications collectively in formulation of both Federal and local policies. Possibly the large centralized organization of urban school districts is unable to meet the needs of minority group members. Perhaps, such districts require subdivision to produce sensitivity to at-risk students.

Another factor which might be viewed as either an element contributing to student decisions to leave school or as a criterion for defining a group at-risk is linguistic minority status. Such a group would obviously represent an amalgam of races and ethnicities. As a collection of sub-groups drawn from groups already at-risk for other factors, the plight of these children whose primary language is not English should be apparent. Steinberg et al. (1984: 116) report

> ...that individuals from homes where English is not spoken and who themselves do not speak English drop out at a rate four times that of individuals who are from an English language background. Whether an individual speaks English is far more important a determinant of dropping out than whether he or she comes from a non-English speaking background (p. 116).

The same study notes that for individuals who come from non-English speaking background, regardless of the individual's primary language (English or non-English), higher dropout rates are found among those of Hispanic origin than among those of non-Hispanic origin (p.116). Of course, various co-occuring factors exist which might make it difficult to assess the precise impact of language independent of the other factors; also, this study does not take into account factors which might be particularly relevant (e.g. literacy of parents in primary language). Nonetheless, the strong correlations which do exist between non-English background/non-English speaking and dropping out do suggest that linguistic minorities require consideration in the discussion of groups at risk.

A final group which requires mention is that of poor children (Wagner, 1984, p. 185). Again, this might seem more appropriate to consider as a contributing factor than as the designation for a group at risk; however, there is an undeniable link between poverty and dropping out of school. Given the correlations which exist between dropping out of school and the various employment and wage factors which are likely to contribute to keeping the poor child in poverty as an adult, this suggests itself as a fundamental issue of not only educational, but also, social equity.

Correlates of Dropping Out and Predictive Factors

Many factors have been shown to have consistently high correlations with the incidence of dropping out. The value of these correlations is to be found in the creation of a useful predictive index for identifying potential dropouts. A review of major areas of correlation is presented below. This is followed by a list of the most frequently cited predictive factors.

Family Background/Socioeconomic Status

This complex category yields several of the most consistent correlates of early school leaving (Bachman et al, 1971, pp. 25-40; Barro & Kolstad, 1987, p. 2; Eckstrom et al, 1986 & 1987, p. 54; Rumberger, 1983, p. 210; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986 & 1987, p. 71). Various formulations of factors have come under this collective heading, and it is useful to identify some of them.

Bachman et al identify the following family background factors as predictive of dropping out

- low socioeconomic level
- parents' educational attainment
- large families (an unclear finding)
- broken home (whether by death or divorce)
- parental punitiveness

Gainer (1986, p. 10) reporting on the High School and Beyond data reported "...that the dropout rate for youth from households with low-income, low-skill wage earners and limited educational backgrounds was about three times the rate of those from the highest end of the socioeconomic scale (22 percent vs. 7 percent)." Also working with the High School and Beyond data, Kolstad & Owings (1986, p. 13) suggest that socioeconomic influences result in differential rates of return among dropouts, again favoring the higher SES students.

Race

Race has also frequently been cited as a factor highly correlated with the incidence of dropping out (e.g. Bachman et al, 1971). However, when data on race is broken down to separate the influences of various background and socioeconomic factors, minority group youth are shown, in most cases, to have dropout rates which are equal to or lower than those for whites (Eckstrom et al, 1986 & 1987, p. 54; Rumberger, 1983, p. 206; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986 & 1987, p. 71). While this is statistically important, it should not obscure the reality of the situation. Many minority groups are overrepresented in the various socioeconomic and background categories which correlate strongly with the incidence of dropping out. This fact cannot be "controlled" but requires real changes to be made. Nonetheless, the controlled statistics do serve to silence those who would suggest that the school dropout problem is a racial/ethnic problem rather than a national and social one.

School Related Factors

Various school related factors have been shown to correlate statistically with the incidence of dropping out. Among these, some of the more important include: grade failure (Bachman et al., 1971; Cervantes, 1965; Gainer, 1986; Pallas, 1986); grade performance (Bachman et al., 1971, Eckstrom, 1986 & 1987; Howell & Frese, 1982); program of study [e.g. vocational education, vs. college preparatory] (Bachman et al., 1971; Gainer, 1986); performance on standardized achievement and intelligence tests (Bachman et al., 1971; Eckstrom et al., 1986 & 1987; Pallas, 1986); interest in courses and attitude toward school (Bachman et al. 1971; Eckstrom et al. 1986 & 1987); discipline problems; delinquency, and truancy (Bachman et al., 1971; Greene, 1966; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986 & 1987). It should be noted that these factors are not necessarily causally connected to dropping out but are likely to be co-occuring symptoms of underlying systemic problems.

Other Factors

Work outside of the school has been cited by a number of authors as having correlations to the incidence of dropping out, but the connection is not consistent in all reports. Pallas (1986) reported that a regular job outside of school affected the likelihood of dropping out based upon the number of hours worked. A job which required 20 or more hours per week increased the likelihood of early school leaving; fewer than 20 hours per week was seen as having a positive effect on keeping a student in school as opposed to the student without any outside employment. Mann (1986 & 1987) places the critical level for employment at 14 hours per week at which point the likelihood of dropping out was unchanged. At 15 hours per week, the likelihood of dropping out increased by 50 percent, and at 22 hours or more per week, the figure was increased to 100 percent.

Adult/family roles is the final category of factors which have been shown to correlate with the incidence of dropping out (Fine, 1986 & 1987; Howell & Frese, 1982); Pallas, 1986). Included among these are the need to take care of siblings, pregnancy, the need to care for infants, and marriage. These factors are more highly correlated with females dropouts than with males; conversely, work related factors are more strongly correlated with male dropouts.

Predictive Factors

Taken collectively, the following list of factors seems to represent the best available predictors of potential dropouts

- grade failure/overage for grade level (one or more years)
- low academic achievement
- reading below grade level
- low socioeconomic status/poverty background
- single parent household
- pregnancy
- parent who dropped out of school
- member of a traditionally disadvantaged group

The ambiguity of this list is readily apparent. No single category is clearly and consistently predictive. Some children who fit into a category on this list will drop out but more will stay in. Students who do not fit into any of these categories will dropout; however, those children who fit into two or more of the categories cited above become potentially more at-risk of being failed by the school.

Summary

As stated in the introduction, the use of dropout as a focal point in this paper, is to serve as a quantifiable index of youth-at-risk, ages 9-15. Owing to the impracticality of quantifying the myriad factors which define in-school, youth-at-risk, dropping out viewed as the accumulation of co-occurring predictive factors serves as a visible marker. From this information, it is possible to identify groups at risk; in turn, it is necessary to carry this information about groups-at-risk backwards to reach children at an age when potential dropouts can be helped. In this sense, policymakers and lawmakers must necessarily learn to extrapolate from dropout data.

In-school problems, and the absence of basic skills for employability, when viewed as parts of a continuum, represent a life history of the school system's failure to meet its responsibility to both the individual student and to the society which commissions it. Certainly the school is confronted with substantial challenges owing to historical inequalities in our society. The family backgrounds and soci-economic circumstances of many children add to this challenge. Schools are not wholly responsible for the dropout problem (or any other problem associated with school failure), but they do represent our best hope for change. The following are recommendations to improve the capacity of schools in the United States to meet the needs of at-risk youth

- become better able to identify youth-at-risk
- the educational needs of groups identified as being at risk by virtue of data on dropout must be met legislatively for younger children
- evaluate alternative credentials and delayed high school completion.

To further discuss the aforementioned recommendations, rather than focus on defining the dropout, it is essential to direct attention to the early warning signs. Dropout data is valuable insofar as it informs policymakers, school teachers, administrators, and support personnel who come into contact with students or affect the delivery of services to students. All of these groups need such information about youth who have already been failed by schooling. For these persons, basic employment skills training seems to be indicated; however, the data must also be used to establish a framework for assessing in-school, youth-at-risk. Grade retention, below grade-level reading, and excessive truancy must not be viewed as inevitable outcomes but should be regarded as markers of a student's school failure in the earliest and most critical stages.

Legislation currently in place to meet the needs of groups at risk must be corrected to meet the needs of children when they are truly at-risk. Perhaps 9-15 is too late. Again, research is required to determine the critical age for initiating preventive and developmental assistance, but intuitively, one might suggest that pre-school is the essential starting point.

If the GED and other alternative credentials, or delayed completion of high school prove to be relatively less valuable than the timely completion of high school diploma requirements, then it is imperative that we reassess the resources devoted to such activities. Possibly, it is more sensible to focus attention on specific employment or skills training rather than to be obsessed with credentialing.

The operative word with regard to youth-at-risk, ages 9-15 is "potential", either in terms of potential to achieve or as potential dropouts. Those children who fall into categories which predict an increased likelihood of dropping out present an important challenge, not only for schools, but for a democratic society. Failure to provide adequate educational opportunities, including the failure to equip students with the skills to avail themselves of such opportunities, can only tend to foster and perpetuate social stratification and inequality. It is only by setting side-by-side, a society's advances and achievement with its ability to meet the needs of its most at-risk citizens, that the society can ultimately be judged.

Notes

[1] Cross-sectional data analysis involves calculation of the total number of dropouts as a function of the total population of students in the grades included.

A projection made from cross-sectional data would produce an estimate of the dropout rate for several years based on an annual cross-sectional rate.

Cohort rate is calculated by following a set population of students from grade to grade.

[2] For a more detailed explanation of the effects of time frame and student accounting procedures on the calculation of school dropouts, please see George Morrow's "Standardizing Practice in the Analysis of School Dropouts" in School Dropout: Patterns and Policies, Edited by Gary Natriello, New York: Teacher's College Press, 1986 & 1987, pp.38-51, especially pp.43-48.

[3] Barro & Kolstad (1987) point out the value of the High School and Beyond study in providing valuable data for comparative purposes. Along with most other reviews of the High School and Beyond data, they express awareness of the dangers of extrapolating too far beyond the data range (late sophomore year to late senior year). Nonetheless, the work is excellent for inter-group comparisons and for the comparative evaluation of factors related to dropping out.

[4] The information used in Table 1 is taken directly from a chart published by the National Center for Education Statistics in Digest of Education Statistics, 1982, page 15. That Table (listed as Table 9) cites as sources, the U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "Biennial Survey of Education in the United States"; "Statistics of State School Systems"; "Fall Statistics of Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools"; and unpublished data. No author is cited as having prepared the Table. Figure 2 of this report is based upon the data from that Table.

[5] The same effect which is described for the analysis would be observed in a cross-sectional analysis of grades ten to twelve if the baseline population were to be calculated during the second semester of the school year.

[6] As Steinberg et al. suggest, the majority of Vietnamese immigrants in the United States arrived here in the 1970s. Therefore, in evaluating educational attainment information, it is essential that one considers the extent of education prior to arrival in this country.

The Link Between Youth-at-Risk and Employment Problems: Dropping Out

The previous section, by focusing on the more tangible concept of "dropouts", was intended to make the population of youth-at-risk, 9 to 15, more visible. Further, it was intended to illuminate the continuum between these children and their prospects for later employment problems. The correlations between early school failure and dropping out, as well as those between dropping out and poor employment and wage outcomes is well documented. This brief section is provided to explain some of the mechanics which conspire to bring about such a problem.

Bitney (1987) identifies two inter-related factors to explain why age 9 to 15 is a critical period for the school to work transition: limited access to Federal programs at the critical juncture of the "literacy transition"[1] (p. 23). "[T]his target population is eligible for only a limited number of Federal programs" (p.3). For students who have passed through the age range for Headstart, Chapter 1 and similar assistance programs without having gained a firm foundation in basic skills, 9 to 15 can be an intellectual wasteland. "Between the ages of 9 to 13 youth-at-risk are attempting to go beyond 'learning the basics' to the application stage of learning which entails 'applying the learned skills within varying contexts'" (p.3). For a student to continue to struggle with basic skills at a stage when acquisition of content through the application of those skill is critical causes the student to faced with a costly tradeoff and no guarantee of success in either direction. Grappling with basic skills at a stage when teachers are focusing on content and application can be frustrating because the student is isolated from teacher and peers. To attempt to acquire content without a foundation of basic skills is perhaps a source of even greater frustration; without the systematicity provided by basic skills, the student is forced to confront each piece of information as if it is an independent element. Without the framework which these skills provide for learning, it is virtually impossible to bring higher order skills to bear on varied content. These problems are only exacerbated if remediation is attempted after the student has dropped out when age, social stigma, and employment pressures are all detrimental influences to achievement and learning.

The nexus which exists for youth-at-risk, 9 to 15, between the period of critical intellectual and social transitions and the relative absence of Federal programs to serve this group, must be an important concern for its implications for education and employment. A concerted effort of support for the early remediation of basic learning as well as transitional developmental problems is necessary. Otherwise, these youth-at-risk will continue to float helplessly through school, like silt in a river, only to fall to the bottom at the river's end.

Notes

[1] Bitney, citing Chall (1983), identifies the literacy transition as the point at which reading becomes a tool for more general learning rather than simply an end in itself (i.e. learning how to read). As stated in the text, lack of basic skills to make this transition places the at-risk child in a precarious position. The mismatch between skills and expectations creates an irreconcilable conflict in which, dispite all efforts, the individual comes to be seen as "a failure" by teachers, peers, and perhaps ultimately, self. The inability to make this transition thus appears to be greater than academic failure alone.

CHAPTER III

LEGISLATION

There is no national plan for education. Rather than a unified plan, the Federal government sets policy for the State Education Agencies (SEA) and the Local Education Agencies (LEA). Through policy, procedures are carried out and programs are implemented with the goal being to give all children equal access to education (The Chairman's Report on Children in America: A Strategy for the 100th Congress, 1986 and U.S. Department of Education, Digest of Education Statistics, 1987). Ultimately, it is the prerogative of the SEA or LEA to determine first, if they will aid youth-at-risk, and second, how such programs will be carried out.

The tracing of funds that support programs for the disadvantaged presents several problems. Although moneys are allocated to carry out programs, those moneys are not necessarily spent by the SEAs nor the LEAs in the years that they are appropriated. Next, regular surveys by the Center for Education Statistics do not include all LEAs that are recipients of Federal funds. Finally, while an institution may wish to report the origin of its funding, many times it cannot as the source of moneys coming through the SEAs is not disclosed (U.S. Department of Education, Digest of Education Statistics, 1987).

Legislation targeting youth-at-risk is essential to a vibrant economic tomorrow. To comprehend employment prospects for the future one must first recognize that societies progress through the stages of agriculture, industry, and information; they can be in all three areas of development at once. To trace this development in the United States, we have seen the number of farmers decrease because of increased agrarian technology. Likewise, jobs in the industrial sector have declined in number due to robotics and other advances in production techniques. Now, we have an information-based economy because the 1950's were a turning point for our nation in terms of employment: at that time, more people entered white collar jobs than entered blue collar labor (Naisbitt, 1984). By 1967, the information sector was 46% of the Gross National Product (GNP) and over 53% of income earned (Parat, 1977). An agrarian nation does not need people who complete high school in order to function. While an industrialized society requires a somewhat higher skill level, it is still capable of operation since the bulk of its work force is in semi-skilled jobs; therefore, high school dropouts do not have a dramatic effect on the economy nor on employment. But an information based society (which the United States is today) requires literate, skilled workers who can manipulate pieces of knowledge. Those people who have not acquired a high school diploma and/or have not gained basic skills such as reading, writing, and arithmetic cannot enter the information market.

Dropouts or skill-deficient workers are relegated to the shrinking industrial market wherein job competition is enhanced by increasing numbers of immigrants and ever increasing technocratic knowledge.

The Federal government must consider the early years of a child and how education during those years relates to unemployment. Education to the level where the individual can gain employment in an information based society is essential not only to the survival of the individual but to the economic health of the nation. In terms of employment, the developmental years of a child are essential to future economic success. By grade three, the reader who is on level has mastered a basic sight word vocabulary (Dolch 220) and can break larger words into manageable parts. It is at this stage that the pupil has acquired basic reading skills to survive. The student begins to hone these skills and further develop them to the point where knowledge is acquired by reading. Further, higher order thinking skills, such as extrapolating an answer from certain information, begins at grade four (Chall, 1983; Harris & Sipay, 1980).

The economically disadvantaged youth who does not acquire these basic skills during the 9-15 age period becomes educationally disadvantaged. If Congress does not target the at-risk population through legislation that increases programs for youth and their chances for success, then, as Bovard (1987) has stated, these youth are unlikely to reach the periphery of the employment market through short term jobs. Ultimately, they will remain a recurring training and social problem (Brovard, 1987) that will drain the national economy, jeopardize social stability, and creat a vacuum in the technological employment market where numerous jobs are created each year and where shortfalls exist.

A chronological accounting of legislation that aids economically/educationally disadvantaged youth follows with a brief description of each public law (P.L.). An in depth description of the legislation that could affect economically/ educationally disadvantaged youth-at-risk ages 9-15 appears later in this section.

- 1963 Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 88-210) raised allocations to vocational educational institutions and the work study programs under vocational education as well as raised allocations to research, training, and demonstrations in vocational education.

- 1964 Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-452) among other programs established Job Corps, and authorized support of such programs as Head Start, Follow Through, and Upward Bound.

- 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (P.L. 89-10) gave grants to the elementary and secondary school programs for economically disadvantaged children; authorized and instituted other programs.

- 1968 Elementary and Secondary Education Amendments of 1967 (P.L. 90-247) in addition to modifying and increasing the support for handicapped children, provided support of dropout prevention projects.

- 1968 Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 (P.L. 90-576) modified existing programs, set up a National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, and provided for gathering and disseminating information on programs under the Commissioner of Education.

- 1972 Education Amendments of 1972 (P.L. 92-318) established a bureau level Office of Indian Education; aided current Office of Education Programs to enhance their effectiveness and better meet special needs; prohibited gender bias in admissions to vocational institutions.

- 1973 Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (P.L. 93-203) provided other programs; enlarged and augmented provisions in Title I of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1962 and Title I of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.

- 1974 Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (P.L. 93-415) enhanced the options of those elementary and secondary students who are at-risk of leaving school; provided for research and resources that included technical assistance as well as the training of staff to generate and implement programs.

- 1975 Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act (P.L. 93-638) enhanced Indian participation in establishing and running their own educational programs and services.

- 1978 Education Amendments of 1978 (P.L. 95-561) set up a comprehensive basic skills program to improve student achievement thereby replacing the national Reading Improvement Program.

- 1981 Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 (P.L. 97-35) consolidated 42 programs into 7 funded through the elementary and secondary block grant authority.

- 1984 Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act (P.L. 98-524) extended the Federal moneys for vocational education through fiscal year 1989 and replaced the Vocational Education Act of 1963. In addition, vocational education was made accessible to all persons including disadvantaged students, those from single parent homes, those students who are single parents, and those in detention centers (U.S. Department of Education, Digest of Education Statistics, 1987).

Title I-Elementary and Secondary Education Act

(P.L. 89-10)

Created in 1965 as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), Title I was the government's first attempt to help at-risk students achieve economic and educational independence. Its purpose was to provide financial assistance to Local Education Agencies with high concentrations of children from low income families in order that these students receive the same educational opportunities as others.

Included in the group of what was termed disadvantaged were children of migrants, American natives, the handicapped, neglected, and delinquents (Sec. 101). Programs were provided for some children of migrant agricultural workers or migrant fishermen but these children could be bypassed if an SEA were either unable or unwilling to provide the services. Then, the United States Commissioner of Education (Commissioner) could make other arrangements for the education of these students (Sec. 141). SEAs responsible for the education of deliquent or neglected children in institutions could also receive grants. Further, moneys were made available to pupils in transition from state operated institutions to those institutions that were locally operated (Sec. 151). Some disadvantaged children termed "in greatest need" could be exempt from Title I moneys if they were already receiving programs from non-Federal sources of the same nature as programs provided for under Title I (Sec. 123). Students enrolled in private schools, were entitled to the same services as those in the public school system unless the LEA were prohibited by law from providing such programs (Sec. 130).

Each year, grants were appropriated to the States based on a formula. In addition to the States, territories received allocations.

In order to qualify for allocations, the Local Education Agency counted the number of children between the ages of 5 and 17 who were from families below the poverty level based on a definition of poverty as determined by the Bureau of the Census. The amount of money given to the education of children of American Indians depended on whether the children were out of state and were in elementary and secondary schools already under contract with the Department of the Interior, or whether they were already living on a reservation (Sec. 102, 111). LEAs having especially high concentrations of children from poverty stricken families could qualify for extra funds, but if Federal funds were not enough to aid the LEA in the education of the disadvantaged child, then the LEA had to rank the areas from those of highest concentration of disadvantaged children to those of the lowest concentration (Sec. 117, 122). Those schools in an area of low concentration could receive funds for a program only if the same program were funded in a school with a higher ranking. Further, a LEA with more then 75% of its students from poverty families could, with Federal funds, carry out special programs for the entire school district (Sec. 133).

To have a program for disadvantaged children in a school district, required the cooperation of teachers and school board participants. Parents were mandated to set up advisory councils and hold training sessions (Sec. 124).

LEAs were accountable for the programs and were then to report to the SEA; however, no strict guidelines were set up, although each LEA was required to make the documents available to teachers, parents, and other members of the general public (Sec. 127). LEAs not complying with SEA regulations could have their funds withdrawn (Sec. 169). The Commissioner contracted for independent evaluations; moreover, a system for making the results know to others was to be developed (Sec. 183). Complaints about programms in a particular school district could be registered according to a specified procedure (Sec. 128).

This public law, more than any other piece of legislation, targets the 9-15 age group of economically/educationally disadvantaged youth.

Title I-Amendments to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and Related Amendments (P.L. 90-247)

Amendments increased the dollar limitation for state administrative expenses and changed the payments made to neglected and deliquent children (Sec. 102, 103). If aides were used in programs for disadvantaged children, the LEA had to set up coordinated training programs between the aides and the professionals they assisted (Sec. 106). Provisions were made to accomodate SEAs when appropriations were insufficient to make the payments (Sec. 208).

Children of agricultural workers were not considered migrant if they resided in a school district for more than 5 years (Sec. 109, 205). The impact of public housing on a school district was considered important enough to warrant study (Sec. 111). Provisions were made in order for a school district to be in compliance with the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Sec. 112, 182). The National Advisory Council was to report annually to the President on the most successful programs in compensatory education (Sec. 114).

Under Title VII, a related amendment provision was made for counseling and technical assistance to schools in rural areas (Sec. 706) which, in some parts of the United States, are economically disadvantaged. In addition, Title VII was amended to include dropout prevention programs in urban and rural areas where there was a high precentage of families below the poverty line (Sec. 707). Dropout prevention is discussed later in this segment.

Title IV provided for funds to facilitate adequate planning of programs for the following year (Sec. 402). Further, it stipulated that evaluations of the elementary and secondary school programs as well as their effectiveness be made for Congress (Sec. 404).

Since the findings of Congress revealed that an acute educational problem in the United States emanated from lack of English proficiency, Title VII-Bilingual Education Programs was enacted (Sec. 701) and is discussed in detail later in this part.

Through this law, increased allocations were made for administration. Moreover, the population of disadvantaged served was enlarged to include neglected and deliquent children, dropouts, and bilingual children; thus, greater numbers of the 9-15 age group were reached.

Chapter 1-Education Consolidation and Improvement Act

(P.L. 97-35)

Originally called Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Chapter 1 and its changes are now found under the Education Improvement and Consolidation Act. Chapter 1 provides financial assistance to LEAs

> "...serving areas with concentrations of children from low income families to expand and improve their education programs by various means (including preschool programs)....

Indian children receive Chapter 1 funds when

> ...out-of-state Indian children (are) in the elementary and secondary schools of such agencies under special contracts with the Department of the Interior.

Expenditures may not exceed 40% of the average per pupil expenditure in the State in which the agency is located, or 120% of per pupil expenditure in the United States, whichever is greater. If the child resides on a reservation, then the Secretary of the Interior shall deem the amount that is necessary to meet the educational needs of the child (Sec., 116).

Three levels of responsibility are involved in the allocation of Chapter 1 funds: the Federal Government, the State Education Agency (SEA), and the Local Education Agency (LEA). Grants are appropriated by the Federal Government to the States each fiscal year; the amount granted to the SEA is determined by a detailed formula. In addition to the States, Guam, American Samoa, the Virgin Islands, the North Mariana Islands, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands receive moneys. The formula used to determine the amount of the allocation for States is based on the dollar figure expenditure per pupil and the number of children between the ages of 5 and 17 in a school district who are from families that are below the poverty level. Here, the term poverty level is defined on the basis of data from the Department of Commerce, or if that data is not available, the LEA uses the criterion of poverty set up by the Bureau of Census; moreover, children between the ages of 5 to 17 above the poverty level may be eligible to receive funds, if this has been determined by the Secretary (Sec. 111). LEAs are required to use the Federal funds they receive to supplement those already accepted from the SEA, but they may not use the Federal funds in place of the capital they receive from the SEA so that money on the local level is thereby increased by Federal allocations (Sec. 558). Special incentive grants are made to each LEA that qualifies. LEAs can be eligible for such moneys if their area has high concentrations of low income families.

Assessment of Chapter 1 is conducted through independent studies and analyses by the National Institute of Education. The studies contain the following information: types of services delivered; students who receive the services; education and training of teachers and staff; amount of funds; the ways in which the Chapter 1 programs mesh with other programs in the LEA; how Chapter 1 has affected the achievement level of the student; and a national profile on the manner in which LEAs implement the intent of Chapter 1 (Sec. 559).

Chapter 1 of P.L. 97-35 enlarges the population of economically/ educationally disadvantaged youth served by including Indian children, and since children 5-17 are targeted, the subject population is included.

Changes in the Law under Chapter 1

Under Title I, a great deal of paperwork was required at the State and the local level. Reporting under Chapter 1 has been changed to reduce paperwork for education personnel. Now, audits are conducted by the the Office of the Inspector General which is under the Department of Education. Since less paperwork is involved in reporting under Chapter 1, responsibilities of the States has decreased; therefore, funding for Chapter 1 offices has decreased and staff has been reduced commensurately.

Parent Advisory Councils, which were an integral part of the Title I Program, have been almost eliminated. Instead, districts are to convene an annual meeting of parents of eligible students.

Chapter 2-Education Consolidation and Improvement Act

(P.L. 97-35)

Subchapter A

Subchapter A of Chapter 2, which is a part of ECIA of 1981, is entitled Basic Skills Development. Funds allocated for this Chapter are used by the States and the local educational authorities to develop and implement elementary and secondary school programs in reading, mathematics, and language arts -- this was originally part of Title II of ESEA 1965 (P.L. 97-35, Sec. 571). To provide Basic Skills Development, funds may also be used to generate and distribute materials for parents to help their child; for the research and design of workshops to train the classroom teacher; and for training the parent in assisting their child (Sec. 572).

While Basic Skills are the intent of this portion of the legislation, economically/educationally disadvantaged youth are not specifically targeted in this section; however, it is stated that the programs shall include a diagnosis of the skill level of all the children in the school (Sec. 573). It may be, then, that through the program's early skill assessment, those youth who are educationally at-risk will be served.

Subchapter B

Subchapter B, entitled Educational Improvement and Support Services, allows SEAs and LEAs to carry out specific programs by means of Federal funds including those programs that deal with the special needs of educationally deprived children and minority children (Sec. 577).

Subchapter C

Subchapter C, Special Projects, provides for state and local education authorities to carry out special projects that include improving a student's transition from school to the work place; career education; academic and vocational education for delinquent youth; and programs for disadvantaged secondary school students to make them aware of biomedical and medical sciences. All of the aforementioned programs can be of help to economically/educationally disadvantaged youth at-risk. Further, funds are provided to both establish standards for the basics as well as to determine student level of achievement in reading, mathematics, and writing (Sec. 581-82).

Subchapter D

The Secretary's Discretionary Funds, Subchapter D, provide allocations for the Secretary to carry out numerous projects and programs to establish a national source to collect and disclose information on the effectiveness of programs that target disadvantaged youth; additionally, allocations are employed to design programs that help LEAs and SEAs implement policy as outlined under Chapter 2.

ECIA of 1981 set up programs for Basic Skills Development which, has been stated, can aid children through those important developmental years; however, the 9-15 at-risk group is included but not specifically targeted. P.L. 97-35 enlarges the disadvantaged youth group by adding minority children. It is important to note that ECIA has provided programs to ease a student's transition from school to the workplace and a means of assessing all programs that aid the disadvantaged.

Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974

(P.L. 93-415)

The findings of Congress have revealed that juveniles account for almost half of the arrests in the United States; programs and courts have not been adequate in meeting the needs of dependent children who have become delinquent; and existing programs that deal with juveniles have not responded to the problems students face with alcohol and drug dependency. Due to these facts, Congress enacted P.L. 93-415 to provide evaluation of all existing programs dealing with delinquency (Sec. 101). In addition, this act established training programs for professionals and other individuals who work with delinquents. Centralized research was called for to collect all data relating to delinquency problems. State and local communities were aided in the development and implementation of programs that curb dropping out, and a Federal program was set up to deal with runaways (Sec. 102). P.L. 93-415 cited no specific ages for programs. The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Office was set up to oversee the programs (Sec. 201).

The National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention was established and its activities were coordinated with the activities of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (Sec. 241). This body was authorized to perform a number of functions among which were to conduct studies, not only on the cooperation of educational institutions for the prevention and the treatment of juvenile delinquency, but also to make recommendations for the prevention and treatment of delinquency (Sec. 243).

Grants were authorized on the State and local level to enable them to design and implement projects with both public and private agencies for education, research, and programs that delt with delinquency. An annual allocation was made to the States in an amount that was determined by the number in the population below the age of eighteen (Sec. 221, 222). On the State level, over 75% of the funds were marked for advanced techniques to design and implement programs that prevented delinquency. These included community-based programs for prevention, coordination with parents, youth service bureaus, as well as drug and alcohol treatment and rehabilitation procedures; moreover, it was necessary that the State set up educational programs to prevent school dropouts on the elementary and secondary level through alternative education. Also called for were youth initiated programs and outreach programs to meet the needs of those young people who might, otherwise, not be contacted. Assurances in the legislation encompassed all disadvantaged youth including females and minorities (Sec. 223). Considerations for grants were given to those agencies or groups in communities or areas that had high concentrations of delinquency, dropouts, and youth unemployment (Sec. 225).

States were mandated to formulate plans and to set up an advisory group made up of representatives of private organizations who were involved with neglected or dependent children, volunteers who worked with delinquents, and people from delinquency programs in the community (Sec. 223).

Since P.L. 93-415 cites no specific ages for programs that curb the dropout problem, the 9-15 at-risk group may, or may not, be helped.

Bilingual Education Act (P.L. 90-247)

The Bilingual Education Act (P.L. 90-247, Title VII) was enacted in response to a recognition of "... the growing number of children of limited English proficiency, ..." and "... a cultural heritage which differ(ed) from that of English proficient persons; ..." (Sec. 702). Included in the category of "limited English proficiency" were American Indians, Native Alaskans, immigrants, and others from environments where English is not the primary language (Sec. 703).

The Act acknowledged the obligation of the Federal Government to provide equal education opportunity to these children through the use of linguistically and culturally appropriate educational means (Sec. 703). The intent of Congress, as expressed in the Act (Sec. 702) was "... to assist language minority students to acquire the English language proficiency that [would] enable them to become full and active members of society; ....".

It is evident that the intent of Congress was for bilingual education to serve primarily as a transitional means for individuals of limited English proficiency to enter the mainstream. In addition to educational concerns (e.g. higher dropout rates, lower median educational attainment), explicit concern was expressed within the legislation for the "social segregation" of language minority children (Sec. 702). Congress was also cognizant of the need for community and parental involvement to produce effective education as well as the challenges resulting from the parents' own language minority status.

To address all of these concerns, the Bilingual Education Act was intended to provide transitional bilingual education at the preschool, elementary and secondary levels, and through adult education. Transitional bilingual education was meant to provide "... structured English language instruction, and, to the extent necessary to allow a child to achieve competence in the English language, instruction in the child's native language." (Sec. 703).

Bilingual education of this type was to be provided at all levels of elementary and secondary education and in all courses which would be necessary for a child to achieve grade promotion and graduation standards. In order to guard against segregation of language minority children, provisions were made for the inclusion of up to 40% enrollment of children whose primary language is English (Sec. 703). Further, in certain classes (e.g. art, music, physical education) schools were to "... make provision for the participation of children of limited English proficiency in regular classes." (Sec. 703). An effort was to be made to place students "... in classes with children of approximately the same age and level of educational attainment." (Sec. 703).

Developmental bilingual education programs were to raise competency in English and a second language (Sec. 703:5). In areas with a large population of non-English speaking residents, such programs would foster true bilingual competence. Owing to requirements for the enrollment of approximately equal numbers of English and non-English speakers, such programs were also to foster cross-cultural awareness. As with programs of transitional bilingual education, developmental bilingual educational programs were to cover all subject areas necessary to allow children to meet grade promotion and graduation requirements.

Other programs such as the "special alternative instructional programs" (Sec. 705) and the "family English literacy program" (Sec. 705) were to meet particular needs and to fill gaps within elementary and secondary schools as well as meet the needs of adults and school dropouts. Provisions were made for "programs of academic excellence" (Sec. 705). These were successful programs in bilingual education which would be developed as demonstration projects. Other provisions outlined the development of bilingual education programs in coordination with other legislation [e.g. Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act (Part E, Title IV)].

Funds for the various programs outlined above were allotted as grants to LEAs or to other appropriate agencies (Sec. 721). Applicants for elementary and secondary school program funds were required to provide information about the language minority population to be served including the number of language minority children, evidence of the condition of language minority children served by the LEA (e.g. standardized test, scores), the programs to be used, the qualifications of the personnel to provide services, and the resources required to carry out the proposed programs. Also, applicants were required to include program goals and an explanation of how progress toward these goals would be measured (Sec. 721). Similar requirements were outlined for applicants of funds for adult education programs (Sec. 721, p. 3).

Additional provisions contained within the allocations section of the Bilingual Education Act pertained to geographic distribution of limited education population, service to historically underserved language minorities, and the extent to which a proposed program should serve persons of limited English proficiency from low-income families. In the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, the Act pertained to bilingual proficiency in either English or Spanish (Sec. 721).

The Bilingual Education Act also made specific provisions for American Indians and Alaskan Natives. Primarily, these provisions identified tribally governed or tribally chartered schools as LEAs eligible for funding. Also, the Assistant Secretary of the Interior for the Bureau of Indian Affairs was required to submit to Congress and the President, an annual report outlining the needs of Indian children and the progress being made through programs funded by the Act (Sec. 722).

Other provisions of the Act outlined the collection of data, evaluation of programs, and research responsibilities (Sec. 731). Also, provisions of the Act detailed training programs for bi-lingual education personnel (Sec. 741) and the development of resource centers to participate in training, research, data collection, and information dissemination (Sec. 742). Finally, the Act called for the establishment of a National Advisory and Coordinating Council on Bilingual Education (Sec. 752).

While P.L. 90-247 serves minority children who are educationally at-risk because of a lack of English proficiency, no age group is targeted since programs are on both the elementary and secondary level. Further, such programs are also intended to meet the needs of adults and dropouts.

Title 3-Indian Elementary and Secondary School Assistance Act (P.L. 92-318)

Enacted June 23, 1972, this Title, added under Title I of the ESEA of 1965, was approved "In recognition of the special educational and culturally related academic needs of Indian students in the United States, ..." (Sec. 302). It was to provide financial assistance to LEA's for the development, implementation, and maintenance of elementary and secondary school programs specifically designed to meet those needs.

Grants were made to LEA's using a formula multipling the total number of Indian children served by an LEA by the average per pupil expenditure of the LEA. Final allocations were based on the proportion of this product to the sum of such products for all LEA's (Sec. 303). The minimum number of students enrolled in an eligible LEA was ten. Exceptions to this provision included "... agencies serving Indian children in Alaska, California, and Oklahoma or located on, or in proximity to, an Indian reservation." (Sec. 303).

Other provisions of this Act pertained to grants for model programs (Sec. 303); remodeling of classroom space; and acquisition of equipment and materials specifically akin to the educational and culturally related academic needs of Indian children; and the training of counselors at eligible schools (Sec. 304).

The 9-15 at-risk group is not specifically addressed.

Indian Education Act (P.L. 92-318)

This legislation was enacted June 23, 1972. Part A of this Act refers to "Revisions of Impacted Areas Program as It Relates to Indian Children" (amendments to P.L. 81-874). Primarily, this required that LEAs make assurances for Indian children to participate on equal terms with non-Indian children in schools to which such funds were allocated.

Part B addressed special programs and projects to improve educational opportunities for Indian children. Included in this area were provisions for teacher training and administrators of special programs to meet educational needs of Indians. Grants and contracts were authorized to establish training programs and in-service programs. Authorized agencies include institutions of higher education, Indian tribes, and Indian organizations (Sec. 422).

Fellowships were awarded to Indian students for both graduate and undergraduate study. These fellowships were for degree programs in areas where American Indians have been traditionally under-represented (e.g. medicine, law, engineering).

Parts C and D of the Act pertained to adult education (Sec. 431) and the establishment of an Office of Indian Education (Sec. 441) to administer the provisions of the various Federal laws dealing with Indian education. A National Advisory Council (the Council) was also established to advise the Commissioner on administration, policy, and regulations for any program under the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) with Indian children or adults. The Council, appointed by the President from nominations made by the Indian tribes, provided technical assistance, evaluated programs under HEW serving American Indians, reviewed application for Federal funding relating to American Indians, and made recommendations to Congress (Sec. 442).

As in the preceding P.L. discussed, the 9-15 at-risk group is not specifically addressed.

Indian Self-determination and Education Assistance Act

(P.L. 93-638)

Enacted January 4, 1975, P.L. 93-638 acknowledged that "... the prolonged Federal domination of Indian service programs [had] served to retard rather than enhance the progress of Indian people and their communities by depriving Indians of the full opportunity to develop leadership skills crucial to self-government, ..." (Sec. 2). Recognizing also that Federal control of Indian education had not produced positive educational results and opportunities for American Indians, Congress acknowledged the right and necessity of parental and community control of education for American Indians. The Act called for an orderly transition from Federal control to Indian self-government (Sec. 3).

This self-determination, which was to include all programs for and services to American Indians, was carried out by an effective Indian controlled educational system which would prepare Indian children "... to compete and excel in the life areas of their choice and to achieve the measure of self-determination essential to their social and economic well-being ." (Sec. 3).

The P.L. is aimed at the Indian population at large rather than a specific age group.

Indian Education Assistance Act (P.L. 93-638)

Enacted January 4, 1975, Part A mandated that a report be prepared for Congress reviewing previously enacted legislative obligations for the education of Indians in public schools, as well as a program to meet the special educational needs of Indian children (Sec. 203, pp. 1-2). Other provisions of this Act pertained to construction of schools (Sec. 204) and allocation of funds to LEA's and other institutions for programs related to the special educational needs of Indian children (Sec. 205, 206).

In this P.L. no specific age groups are named.

Title XI-Educational Amendments of 1978- Indian Education

(P.L. 95-561)

Enacted November 1, 1978, Part A referred to amendments of P.L. 81-874 (impact aid). It called upon the Commissioner to propose special regulations to permit American Indian tribes to contract with the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) under Title I of the Indian Self-determination and Education Assistance Act to provide educational services when LEAs fail to do so. Further, the Act provided for the funding of such programs under P.L. 81-874.

Much of the remainder of the Act outlined allocation procedures, and various regulation and policy guidelines for the funding of programs. Also included were more general guidelines for Indian control of Indian educational institutions and procedures affecting the BIA, the rights of Indian students, and the designation of tribal schools as LEAs for purposes of the Indian Elementary and Secondary School Assistance Act.

The Indian school population is served by P.L. 95-561, but no specific age group is named.

Refugee Education Assistance Act of 1980 (P.L. 96-422)

The Refugee Education Assistance Act of 1980 was legislated on October 10, 1980, to provide general assistance and special impact aid to LEAs and SEAs for the education of Cuban and Haitian refugee children. The Act also authorized more limited provisions for allocations to LEAs for the education of Indochinese refugee children. Under Amendments to Title IV of ECIA of 1981 (P.L.97-35), the specific recognition of Cuban and Haitian refugees was replaced by the phrase "eligible participants" ostensibly to include a broader population of refugee children and adults under the provisions of the Act (Sec. 546).

Title I of the Act pertained primarily to definitions of refugees and educational agencies which qualified for funding, as well as allocation procedures for fiscal years (FY) 1981, '82, and '83. This was later amended under P.L. 97-35 to read " ... for fiscal year 1982, and for each subsequent fiscal year ...." (Sec. 546).

Titles II and III referred to general assistance to LEA's and impact aid, respectively. Eligibility, application procedures, and allocations were outlined. Title IV dealt with adult education programs. Title V was concerned with provision of cooperative assistance by various Federal agencies and the reimbursement to state and local agencies for services to eligible participants.

P.L. 96-422 serves immigrant children but no ages are specified in the legislation.

Title VI-Emergency Immigrant Education Act of 1984 (P.L. 98-511)

This Act was to provide assistance to SEAs in the education of immigrant children. "Immigrant children" were defined as those "... not born in any State and who have been attending schools in any one or more States for less than three complete academic years." (Sec. 602).

State entitlements are based on the product of the sum of all immigrant children enrolled in elementary and secondary schools, both public and private, during a FY, multiplied by $500. The count is based on the number of such immigrant children enrolled during the FY two years prior to that FY in which funds are sought. To be eligible, LEAs, must have enrolled in elementary and secondary schools, both public and private, at least five hundred immigrant children or a number of immigrant children equal to three percent of the total enrollment, whichever is less (Sec. 606).

The funds were to be used for supplementary educational costs used for the enrollment of large numbers of immigrant children. Included in this provision were English language instruction, bilingual education programs, special materials, additional basic instructional services directly related to the presence of immigrant children, and in-service training related to the provision of any these services (Sec. 607).

While immigrant children may be economically/educationally disadvantaged, the 9-15 age group is not targeted.

Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 90-576)

It was the intent of Congress, through Federal funds to the States, to strengthen the maintenance of the existing vocational education programs and extend them (Sec. 1). Work study programs were set up for persons at least 15 years of age and not less than 21 (Sec. 13). Overall, it appears that this act does not target the needs of the 9-15 at-risk population.

Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 90-576)

Amendments do not appear to affect the at-risk population that is the subject of this paper.

Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-452)

The Job Corps, which is part of this act, was established to increase the employment options of young men and women; however, it is open only persons ages 16 to 21 (Sec. 101).

Under this act, Part C which is known as the Voluntary Assistance Program for Needy Childrean provided for the Office of Economic Opportunity to be a coordination center for those who wish to volunteer services to needy children. In no way was the Office to interfere with the job of welfare or other agencies that already have programs for these children in place (Sec. 219, 220).

Title III of this act is termed "Special Programs to Combat Poverty in Rural Areas". The purpose is to raise the living standards of agricultural migrant workers and their families as well as other families in the rural regions by providing loans for real estate, real estate improvement, or participation in agricultural enterprises (Sec. 301).

The ages of needy children are not specified, and, overall, this P.L. does not address our target group.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (P.L. 93-203)

This legislation enlarged the programs of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 but does not target the subject population of this report.

Job Training Partnership Act of 1982 (P.L. 97-300).

The purpose of the Job Training Partnership Act of 1982 (JTPA) is to provide training to economically disadvantaged youth and unskilled adults so they will be employable (Sec. 2). Under this legislation, since the term "youth" means an individual aged 16 through 21 and "adult" means a person who is 22 years of age or older, JTPA does not serve the needs of the target population that is the subject of this report (Sec. 203).

Amendments to JTPA-Summer Youth Employment and Training Programs

The purpose of the JTPA Summer Programs is threefold: improve basic skills, enhance school completion, and expose youth to the labor world. These programs could be positive for disadvantaged youth ages 9-15. Presently, 14 and 15 year olds are reached through special summer programs such as the Summer Youth Employment and Training Program (Public/Private Ventures, 1987).

Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act (P.L. 98-524)

This legislation, passed in 1984, does not target the 9-15 age group.

School Improvement Act of 1987 (H.R. 5)

As an omnibus bill, H.R. 5 enlarges and revises fourteen of the Federal elementary and secondary education programs that will terminate in 1987, 1988, or 1989. Among those programs, are several that directly affect disadvantaged youth: Chapter 1 of ECIA, Chapter 2 of ECIA, the Drug-Free Schools and Committees Act of 1986, the Bilingual Education Act, Indian Education Programs, Magnet Schools Assistance Program (Title VII of EESA), and the Emergency Immigrant Education Act. Additionally, H.R. 5 will provide resources for dropout prevention and basic skills improvement on the secondary school level. Also, preschool education will receive new resources. Further, H.R. 5 will revise the information gathering process by improving accounting and statistics accumulation on the Federal level.

ECIA in 1981 rescheduled authorizations of programs. Through H.R. 5, fourteen Federal elementary and secondary education programs set to be terminated will not only be extended through FY 1993 but will expire at the same time so that all future reauthorizations can be considered together.

Chapter 1, the largest Federal elementary and secondary education program, will be strengthened by H.R. 5 since more funds will be slated to the neediest areas and more accountability from the LEAs and SEAs for Chapter 1 funds will be required.

H.R. 5 will also enlarge and strenghten the quality of Chapter 1 programs by holding the LEAs more responsible. Aside from improving Chapter 1, H.R. 5 will aid disadvantaged students through provisions to expand other programs and improve allocations in other areas. The bill also focuses on dropout prevention programs. Improvement will occur in the bilingual education programs for pupils of limited English skills. The bill reauthorizes education for immigrant children, the Magnet School's Assistance Program, and several Indian education programs [U.S. Congress, Senate. (1987). H.R. 5, an act. and U.S. Congress, House of Representatives. (1987). School Improvement Act of 1987, a report].

Summary

Chapter 1 of the 1981 Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (P.L. 97-35) appears to be the legislation most dramatically affecting economically/ educationally disavantaged youth. Some research has shown that Federally supported remedial programs concentrated in the early years aid disadvantaged children in achieving academic proficiency. Yet, other investigations raise questions as to the effectiveness of Chapter 1. The following statement was made in the "Summary and Background Information for the Fiscal Year 1988 Budget"

> The Chapter 1 evaluation has found that many children receiving services who are neither poor nor low achievers. (...only 40 percent come from poor families; about 20 percent scored above the 50th percentile in the mathematics achievement tests. Of the students receiving reading instruction, about one-third come from poor families; ....)
>
> U.S. Congress, House of Representatives, Committee on Education and Labor, Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education (1987) in Targeting Students for Chapter 1 Services: Are the Students in Greatest Need Being Served?

While the data is over ten years old, the Subcommitte on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education deemed it required further investigation. The results of the Subcommittee staff investigation were

- children served by Chapter 1 are the lowest achievers
- sustaining effects study data is old and unreliable
- most students below the 25th percentile are in Chapter 1
- if needy children are missed then it is because resources are not available
- the law requires that student selection at the local level be based on educational need and not on poverty

In assessing the changes made between Title I (P.L. 90-247) and Chapter 1 (P.L. 97-35), Chapter 1 appears to be a different legislative attempt and has not made much difference in the opinion of some researchers (Savage, 1981; Dougherty, 1985). Because more responsibility has been given to the states, lack of control results. Though paperwork has been reduced when LEAs and SEAs report to the Federal government, the loss of data makes it difficult to determine the efficacy of Chapter 1 and may allow some SEAs the latitude to respond with inadequate service since they are not as accountable as they once were. Now, under Chapter 1, states get information on what practices are acceptable to auditors, but many SEAs do not feel the guidelines are adequate (unpublished data, Winters, Rubinstein, & Winters, 1987).

Another change which affected the SEAs was a reduction in staff. Since Chapter 1 regulations required less paperwork, it was felt that fewer employees were necessary even though census data has shown an increase in families below the poverty level in the last decade indicating a corresponding increase in those children who are disadvantaged and who should be served by Chapter 1. While many SEAs have discovered that the number of children to be served has increased, their staff has been reduced (unpublished data, Winters, 1987).

Though effective model school programs have demonstrated that schools work best when parents are directly involved with their children's work, Chapter 1 has minimized parent interaction to one meeting at school per year.

Discounting the rise in inflation, Chapter 1 allocations have been cut since the 1979-80 school year, the justification being declining enrollment. As a result, the student/teacher ratio under the new legislation increased from 32:1 to 36:1, and the number of teachers declined, as well. To balance their budgets, LEAs have often used the less experienced and less expensive teacher for Chapter 1 services even though research has demonstrated that the skills deficient student needs an instructor of some experience (Dougherty, 1985).

H.R. 5 was reported out of the House in May, 1987. In the Senate, it was reported out of subcommittee (10/187), committee (10/15/87), and went to the floor on November 19, 1987. It appears that H.R. 5 will reach conference in late November, 1987. Some programs in H.R. 5 as well as dropout prevention provisions have been added to the trade bill H.R. 3 which, during November, 1987, was still in conference. H.R. 5, on the surface, seems to be an attempt to strengthen and reinforce Chapter 1 and, in most programs, it bolsters legislative efforts. Yet, setting fourteen Federal elementary and secondary education programs to expire at the same time is a double-edged sword: a Congress friendly to education would reauthorize and, perhaps, increase funding. But a Congress squeezed by budget constraints could, ostensibly, sever all funding for these fourteen programs.

Amendments to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and Related Amendments (P.L. 90-247) do affect the at-risk group since the amendments specify neglected, delinquent, and disadvantaged children; further, P.L. 90-247 does consider children of migrant workers. Chapter 2 of ECIA aids this youth group through programs for basic skills development, for deprived and minority children, for career education, for transition from the school to work, for delinquent youth, and for career opportunities. While the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (P.L. 93-415) can affect youth-at-risk, no age group is targeted in the legislation.

The Bilingual Education Act (P.L. 90-247) is advantageous to American Indians, Native Alaskans, and immigrants because it brings these children into mainstream America.

Several pieces of legislation deal specifically with American Indians: Title 3-Indian Elementary and Secondary School Assistance Act (P.L. 92-318); Indian Education Act (P.L. 92-318); Indian Self-determination and Education Assistance Act (P.L. 93-638); and Title XI-Educational Amendments of 1978-Indian Education (P.L. 95-561). Through the aforementioned pieces of legislation, the special educational and cultural needs of American Indians have been recognized in order for these children to participate fully in LEAs. By 1975, legislation pertaining to Indians had evolved to enlarge the options of these children by allowing self-determination and further enhanced programs to meet their educational needs.

The Refugee Education Assistance Act of 1980 (P.L. 96-422) at first provided for education of Cuban and Haitian refugee children and later included all refugee children. Title VI-Emergency Immigrant Education Act of 1984 (P.L. 98-511) funded SEAs to educate immigrant children.

Acts dealing with vocational education are the following: Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 90-576); Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 90-576); the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1964 (P.L. 98-524); and JTPA (P.L. 97-300). All of this legislation begins at age 15 when work study programs are mentioned although some summer programs funded by JTPA are open to 14 and 15 years old disadvantaged youth.

Finally, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-452) does provide programs for needy children though their ages are not mentioned.

The major considerations for those who want to enlarge educational and employment options of the 9-15 at-risk age group through legislation that is directed to this population are Chapter 1 and its amendments as well as H.R. 5 and H.R. 3. At the time of this research (November, 1987), neither H.R. 3 nor H.R. 5 have become law.

No clause within current legislation helps the 9-15 at-risk age group transcend the developmental stage and co-ordinated services are necessary to target this population. If programs and allocations are not put into legislation, at-risk youth will likely be in crisis by age 16.

CHAPTER IV

MODEL PROGRAMS

On the Federal level, educational services in existence do not specifically address the shortcomings of the 9-15 at-risk population so that this group does not become a future employment problem. Nowhere does the Federal government effectively address the need for career education in schools, and programs are not in place that aid the student in making that difficult transition from school to the work force. On the State and local level, however, there are school programs whose success can serve as a guide for those who are committed to enabling this group to achieve their goals. To appreciate the dire need for model programs that target youth-at-risk ages 9-15, one must not only consider the developmental years of a child (as discussed in the Legislation section) but one must also consider the four worlds of the child and the numerous factors that affect a student's success.

The four worlds of youth are family, friends, school, and work. It is not unusual for a child to feel separated from one of these worlds in growing up, yet the child who feels insecure about several of these worlds over an extended period of time may be in for difficult adjustment (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). Educationally disadvantaged children are usually uncomfortable in school and this can, in turn, lead to problems with friends. Additionally, if children come from economically disadvantaged homes, problems for them will increase exponentially. Those who feel alienated from society seek ways to protect themselves by withdrawing. For these children, then, it is essential they have programs which mesh and reinforce their four worlds.

All children do not enter school at the same level. Factors such as economics, education, health, and sociological influences determine each pupil's ability to meet the challenges of school life. Researchers have recognized, for some time, what is termed the "cumulative deficit effect": if a child has reading and writing problems in grade one and those difficulties remain uncorrected, these problems will have increased exponentially by grade six. Basic skills, according to reading specialists (as we have discussed), should be mastered by grade four. From then on, the student is honing these basic skills and begins to gather information. On the elementary level, the pupil who struggles with sight vocabulary and who, at the same time, battles with oral and written communication, faces a hardship when meeting the higher order thinking skills necessary to adult success. The student's life may already have been complicated by poverty and lack of sound nutrition. It logically follows that this same disadvantaged child who is experiencing failure every day in school develops a poor self image which usually results in behavior problems. These behavior problems, in turn, affect us all when the child strives for self protection by lashing out at society.

Further, because nearly half of all economically disadvantaged students score in the bottom quartile on achievement tests and their dropout rate is three times higher than that of economically enabled children, at-risk students require extra help in traditional programs (U.S. Department of Education, Schools that work, n.d.). Extending the time that the student spends in school does not have favorable effects on learning (Natriello, Mcdill, & Pallas, 1985); therefore, economically/educationally deprived children must have special programs to target their needs if they are to participate fully in a democratic society.

Schools can operate to educate economically/ educationally disadvantaged students. To accomplish this end, the Federal government provides funds for the combined efforts of educational institutions, parents, communities, and States for programs that will increase the success rate of youth at-risk. All of the aforementioned groups have a shared responsibility in this goal (U.S. Department of Education, Schools that work, n.d.). Education has, historically, proven to be the way out of poverty for most people. Further, school achievement usually predicts a student's economic success.

Good schools can make a difference: they set definite goals for students whether they are rich or poor. They teach the basics of reading, writing, and mathematics. Their teachers are committed to the profession and, moreover, know that disadvantaged pupils require stricter classroom guidelines, fair and immediate response to unacceptable behavior, and more motivation so that they can achieve (U.S. Department of Education, School that work, n.d.).

From the numerous model programs we have examined (and which are discussed more fully in Appendix C), we have extracted certain commonalities. The successful school

- creates a demanding curriculum
- involves parents
- provides a safe environment
- imbues teachers and staff with professional attitudes
- solves student problems by a team or collegial method
- designs and implements specific programs to aid the disadvantaged
- engenders positive work habits that are necessary for the adult world

Parents, guardians, and communities involved with successful model programs have an impact on economically/educationally disadvantaged youth when these people

- participate in education
- structure a child's life through caring discipline
- supervise the child's progress
- respond to the child's progress
- act as role models for children to emulate
- invest in the future by investing in education and today's children

Appendix C contains details on model programs that are currently in operation throughout the country. When information is available, the population that the program serves is first defined followed by important components of that program. When data are available, results of the program are discussed.

Summary

From the information on model programs, it is apparent that a number of factors can affect and form the life styles of well-adjusted participatory members of a democratic society who contribute, not only to their own support, but to the support of the nation. The major commonality of successful model programs is that they attempt to pull together the various facets of a child's life. They provide the student with a team or collegial approach by enabling the home, community, government, and schools to work together and meet the needs of that pupil.

Since the first six years of a child's development are considered formative, those individuals with whom the child has the most contact mold his/her behavior, values, self-esteem, and goals. For most children, this contact individual is the parent. Successful school programs incorporate the parent in a variety of ways: by inviting them to visit the school, by using parents as aides and volunteers, through visits by the school to the home, and through contracts signed by the parent in an effort to commit them to helping the child. For many educational/economically disadvanatged parents, the school that their child attends may be a foreboding building representing negative experiences they, themselves, may have had. Some parents may be embarrassed about their economic status while others may view the authority role that schools have, as imposing. It is, therefore, imperative that educational institutions bring parents into the arena that their children encounter every day by making parental encounters with education more appealing and less threatening.

The community as well as business and industry have a shared responsibility in educating disadvantaged youth. Society benefits by nurturing young people with positive goals and increased self esteem because these students will later contribute to the community base by a desire to share with others.

Some education theorists have suggested that schools are a reflection of society rather than a molder of it. To promote general welfare, government now supports the efforts of various groups. The Federal government sets policy and provides enabling funds to the State Education Agencies (SEAs). In, turn, the SEAs apply the federal policy and distribute funds to the Local Education Authorities (LEAs) as the state deems fit, taking into consideration the demographics and the needs of each area. Yet, if schools ae to sculpt society, the Federal government must enact a national policy.

While schools are contributors to the success of economically/ educationally disadvantaged youth, they are neither the sole investor nor the prime investor. Educational institutions have professionals who can enlarge the gains of disadvanatged youth, but schools cannot perform every function necessary to molding a well-rounded and well-adjusted member of society. Entering the educational institution, the child has a host of religious, economic, and social factors which have formed his/her responses to the environment. The school has no control over these factors. On the other hand, there are many who would have the public believe that the educational institution is not only responsible for the ills of the technological age but is a panacea for the problems that are logical outgrowths of advanced societies. Researchers, outspoken about the school's role, recognize the place of those institutions in our nation. They feel we must set limits (Williams, 1987).

Yet, schools are able to catalyze change. As the literature has shown, strong leadership sets the tone for the entire institution. The administrator who provides strict guidelines for student performance, who sets a framework within which to work, and supports teachers in their endeavors, dramatically affects disadvantaged students in a positive way (U.S. Department of Education, Schools that work, n.d.). Additionally, State and Local Education Agencies must empower teachers to maximize their effectiveness with students. Teachers must have more voice in the curriculum development of the school, classroom management, and discipline. Teachers must have a say in classroom size. Students who are economically/educationally disadvantaged should be placed in a classroom of no more than 20 pupils because they need special attention and a higher degree of individualization. The ultimate end of quality education is positively affecting the learner and for at-risk students this means small classes and individualization.

Above all, the literature reveals that students who receive a collegial approach by having a team of individuals from the community, social agencies, the government, and parents working together to meet their needs, stand a greater chance of success than those who do not. Yet, getting people with separate goals and territories to work together is not only difficult but, many times, impossible. A national policy demanding shared support for youth at-risk may be one answer. Coupled with a national policy could be a mandate from the Federal level for agencies and institutions to share their resources or face withdrawal of their funds. Most groups respond if their allocations are jeopardized. Nonetheless, it is essential that the various groups and institutions of American society strive to enhance their future by increasing education and economic options for disvantaged youth ages 9-15.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Our review of the literature has revealed that this nation is now experiencing employment problems, and that these difficulties will increase exponentially for the future unless solutions are first sought and then applied. Assuming that the birth rate remains at its present level, the majority of the populace in the year 2025 will be over the age of 50 (approximately 110 million people). Contrast this projection with the 35-49 age group (about 62 million), who are usually in their peak earning years, and the implications for social security and tax input to the national treasury are somewhat alarming. Couple these figures with less than 40 million people in the new work force group of 25-34 years old, and it is apparent that this country faces grave economic consequences (Population Reference Bureau, 1986).

Both the public and private business sector have registered complaints that incoming employees have neither the attitudes nor basic skills level to survive in the job market. Employers maintain that their dollars are invested, not only in retraining workers, but in giving them the essentials of math and English necessary to meet the needs of the job. When the United States was largely an industrialized nation, such skills were not essential to the employment survival of a majority of the people. Yet, with the growth of an information-based sector, a higher level of job skills is required.

To make adequate recommendations for solutions requires a recap of the problems presented herein; therefore, a discussion of demographics, legislation and model programs follows with an assessment of what has been done as well as what might be future considerations.

Demographics

No one characteristic or factor can predict a child's dropping out. Rather, wastage can be traced to a number of factors some of which are poverty, linguistic differences, cultural disparities, health, lack of parental involvement, and systems that are unresponsive to the needs of today's children.

But dropping out as an issue is not just a problem of this decade. It has been a problem; however, to codify who is dropping out, when dropping out occurs and why, requires accurate data on a national level with guidelines under which the LEAs and SEAs can first gather and then extrapolate statistics. It appears to be a "Catch 22" situation that before policy can be formed or implemented to stem the tide of school leavers, policy must first be set to accumulate information on who is leaving. Obviously, in a technological age there is no time for one policy to await the gains of another; therefore, these procedures must be co-occurring.

At the national level, we must define the term dropout, set methods to calculate dropout rates or the event of dropping out, track students who leave a LEA, and levy economic restraints on the allocations of school districts which do not accurately report data.

Legislation

Due to prescient legislators, much has been done in the past to aid disadvantaged youth through Title I. Unfortunately, Chapter 1 has become a diluted version to help youth-at-risk. H.R. 5 has passed intact with its positive intents. In November, 1987, the Senate will consider Chapter 1 as well as fourteen other education programs that should be bolstered with more allocations plus requirements for greater accountability. Further, H.R. 5 could target funds to the pre-school and secondary school levels. Because of the findings of education and reading specialists relative to the "cumulative deficit effect", "first chance programs" such as those at the pre-school level are of the utmost importance if disadvantaged children are to succeed. Therefore, it is essential that legislation attack the problem before it occurs ... not with dropout prevention tactics, vocational education, or programs on the secondary level but in pre-school and in the elementary years. Ask most elementary teachers to predict a student's potential. Those who are experienced can see attitudes and body movements that indicate a child's potential. This does not mean programs on the upper levels and other means of decreasing unemployment should be dropped. But the major thrust of legislation and funding should take an downward educational trend to target the important developmental years of a child. Investment in "first chance programs" portends future savings not only in "second chance programs" but savings in welfare payments, increased social security input, reduction of drug and alcohol problems, and decreased crime rate, to mention but a few.

On the Federal level, it is essential that "uncontaminated" data be amassed for use by educators and researchers. While statistics are not an answer in and of themselves, they do serve as a guide for us all. Legislation should be enacted to restructure or, perhaps, to structure a section of the Department of Education to ensure that the accurate statistics are collected within well defined guidelines. Next, State and Local Education Agencies must be mandated to provide precise records for national aggregation of data.

Some model programs that aid disadvantaged youth have been demonstrably successful. The programs that are most effective appear to be ones that provide a collegial approach to youth-at-risk because they involve many areas of the child's world.

Congress should first mandate that the most successful model programs be selected by an independent body of educators (not researchers without classroom experience, nor administrators, nor university faculty, but elementary and secondary teachers). Then, allocations should be provided to implement such programs in national areas of greatest need (e.g. the inner cities). Further, schools that serve as pilots for these programs must then network with other schools in need and through these, partnership models will be generated on a nationwide basis. To aid teachers in their day-to-day activities, consultants from the private sector should be provided. Many times, the impetus to help teachers become more effective in the classroom is not given by those persons who are on the fringes of or outside of the competitive market.

On the national level, policies and procedures can effect change for a more secure future for the 9-15 age group. As mentioned in the summary on model programs, a national policy can correlate separate systems to work to the advantage of all. It has been said that the nation that employs the latest in technology to teach its youth will be far ahead of all others. Unfortunately, we as a nation have disregarded this fact. As one example, given the growing number of "latch-key children" in our society, the increase in one parent families, and the obvious fact that much of youth is spent in from of a TV set, it seems ludicrous not to use this medium as a teaching tool. Yet, moneys to Public Service Broadcasting have been reduced during the last two decades. Dramatic efforts must be made to mesh television and education not only by enabling children in schools to better choose and derive knowledge from this form of communication, but also to create stimulating programming replete with values clarification and knowledge. It is within the realm of Congress to provide this thrust by allocating moneys for educational TV.

Those of us in education have seen the results of legislative measures that do not attack the problem: the facts are cited in numerous reports noting the difficulties stemming from educational programs that lack cohesiveness. The wealth of any country lies in an educated populace. Yet, the energy of an experienced Congress is required if the United States is to maintain its global position.

Model Programs

It can be seen from the literature which has been reviewed in this report that successful model programs require a team approach ... the combined efforts of parents, teachers, administrators, community-based organizations, and business, as well as the Federal, state, and local governments. These various groups and interests must be welded together if we are going to help young people become successful.

Model programs may be able to achieve higher measures of success than they already have, provided that better reporting of the statistics substantiating their achievement is initiated through national data collection centers.

The model programs, themselves, should be expanded to include reading programs that are not only skills- based but life-related. It is essential that a student acquire basic skills to faciliate thought processes, but it is also essential to relate these skills to life. Classroom instruction must not only be content-oriented (acquiring knowledge) but process-oriented (applying knowledge to real life experiences). These students should be applying skills to such activities as reading grocery ads to make up a shopping list; budgeting money; looking in the classifieds for a job; writing a letter of application; or reading an article on local taxes or elections to determine who might be affected. Textbook examples are fine, but hands-on experience with acquired skills shows the student why such learning has occurred and usually motivates the pupil to gain more. This approach encourages puposeful learning.

Further, children must be taught how to survive in an information age. This means teaching them how to manage time, how to be a discriminating buyer or seller, and where to get information. Teaching of facts is not as important as the teaching of concepts or process. It is not as important to know when an historical event occurred as realizing why it happened and the conditions that prompted this historical event. Scientific and technical information doubles every 5.5 years. The majority of jobs we have now did not exist thirty years ago. The future requires we teach children how to learn and continue learning rather than educate them for a career. Model programs must accentuate process.

Effective model programs for economically/educationally disadvantaged youth have a summer component. Research has shown that at-risk students tend to lose more than their advantaged peers over the summer months. Future employment survival of the 9-15 at-risk group depends on Federal support for strong summer programs. Otherwise, upon returning to school, the target group will constantly be playing "catch-up" during the first part of the school year while gains made in reading and math during the second half of that school year will be lost over the following summer.

Above all, business should partner with model programs. There has been much criticism of today's business managers because they are short term in both thinking and planning. For them, profit must be immediate. Yet, despite immediate costs, some managers are pursuing long term gains for future business security. Heavy investments now in our educational system can result in long term profits for us all.

For business and industry, the gains they glean are self-evident in a productive work force. It is essential that the private sector commit its fair share of profit to the human capital which will eventually be its major resource, because the reserve labor pool of unskilled workers that once was an asset to our economic system may soon typhoon us to disaster.

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APPENDIX A

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- Time constraints -

  While we have sent a questionnaire to every Chapter I co-ordinator, data may not be returned in time to enter it into the report.

  The summer months vacation time make personnel contacts difficult.

- Reporting techniques -

  Frequently, age groups targeted by programs are not defined.

  Origins of funds for programs are often difficult to ascertain.

  Research suggests that school districts and state education agencies use different reporting statistics.

- Interpretation -

  States do not always interpret the legislation the same way and have, many times, requested stricter guidelines from the Federal government.

  From state to state, the local school districts implement programs in different ways and for different age groups.

  The 9-15 age group is not recognized as a category in either legislation or data collection.

APPENDIX B

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION
1230 Seventeenth Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

REPRINT PERMISSION

Date: September 25, 1987

To: Karen Crispell Winters
419 West Prospect Avenue
State College, PA 16801-4619

For: Table from: Rumberger, Russell W. "High School Dropout Rates for Youths 14 to 21 years Old, by Age, Race, and Sex: 1979," AERJ, 20, 1983, p.200

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APPENDIX C

MODEL PROGRAMS

Elementary Schools

William Lloyd Garrison Elementary School

In the South Bronx, the Garrison School serves 843 students, a majority of whom are from single parent homes. All are from low-income families.

Under the leadership of Carl Russo, the philosophy of the school is that every student is capable of high achievement levels; thus, teacher expectations and involvement must always be optimum. Reading is deemed paramount and that fact is highlighted when the first fifteen minutes of every day are spent in sustained silent reading coupled with 50 minutes of intensive reading instruction for each student, each day. Strong writing skills are emphasized. Math and science classes teach higher order thinking and problem solving skills through activities that involve students in experiments.

The results are that Garrison has ranked in the top 12% of all New York City Schools for the past ten years in reading achievement (U.S. Department of Education, Schools that work, n.d.).

Targeted Intervention Program

The Targeted Intervention Program (TIP) operates in North Carolina at the Clyde Erwin Middle School. Begun in 1984, the purpose of TIP is to give at-risk students a greater chance of success. It was felt that a program of this nature in the Erwin District was necessary in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades due to indicators of potential problems

- a number of youth in the school district reside in low-income housing
- family income is below the national poverty level
- 30% of delinquent youth reside in the Erwin District
- on the California Achievement Test (CAT) 45% of the students are below grade level
- 254 of 1,010 in the school are classified as exceptional children
- the district has a 26% dropout rate

Identification of youth who may be potential dropouts is accomplished by examination of school records, the home, peers, behavior, and the community.

Additionally, drugs, pregnancy, and delinquency are other important factors which point out those who are at risk. Once the youth has been identified, a step-by-step program is put into operation. Through the TIP coordinator, students are helped to identify their areas of strength, determine ways to solve their academic problems, set their goals, and develop self esteem. A team approach to these students limits the program to only 45 participants because a number of individuals is necessary to aid each student at problem solving: they are teachers, parents, community-based child agencies, and the counselors of the juvenile court.

An interesting feature of TIP is that students are expected to participate in community service for a few hours a week after school and on Saturdays. Such activities include working with the elderly to winterize their homes or picking up litter.

It is felt that the success of TIP is due to the networking of educational, business, and civic organizations, and county agencies because, ultimately, those who drop out become a community problem. Moreover, the TIP counselor, Brenda Bohanon, is a good role model. She is a former dropout who worked at $3.00 an hour during the week to get her Graduate Equivalency Diploma and continued to work to complete college. Her frank approach to students in need and her commitment to working alongside the students in community projects provides a stabilizing influence for youth who need stricter guidelines to operate (TIP booklet).

Project S.O.S.

Involving parents, students, and teachers, Project S.O.S. is a program at the William W. Estes Elementary School, Skyland, North Carolina, and is aimed at improving the organizational abilities and study skills of students at every grade level, kindergarten through fifth. The key to the project lies in attention to the "invisible curriculum" which is "learning how to learn." This approach empowers students to be responsible for and capable of learning. Project S.O.S. is now being further developed to chart specific skills to be taught at each grade level.

Important to the success of this program is the fact that it does not require personnel beyond the regular staff and that it is not taught in isolation. Rather, study skills are a part of the regular school curriculum and are introduced as early as kindergarten.

Results of this program have been judged positive by the school staff. Teachers have noted improved work habits and students are completing their homework (William W. Estes Elementary School Program Description pamphlet, 1987).

Elementary School Expansion/Drop out Prevention

The Southern Coalition for Educational Equity (SCEE) is a nonprofit organization functioning in eleven southern states. The coalition's goal is to create effective schools for poor and minority children through a number of projects.

It is unlikely that a student reading below grade at the middle or junior high school level will ever complete high school. For SCEE it followed, then, that a downward expansion of their Effective Schools Project which had been operating on the middle school level was necessary. Emphasis was placed on reading comprehension in grades four through six. Knowing that commitment to a project is germane to success, SCEE found four schools whose staff and principals would be bound to such an endeavor.

The theme of the management structure is to create groups of students who develop rules of behavior which are then posted in the classroom. Because the group earns or loses points based on its behavior, students learn to manage themselves and take responsibility for their actions. SCEE staff and teachers work together to aid readers not on grade level by setting up four skills to be mastered: questioning, predicting, summarizing, and clarifying. Students then take turns playing the role of teacher to lead the group through these four skills areas. Parents of the children are asked to commit fifteen minutes a day, three days a week to helping their child to read. Moreover, they are encouraged to contact the staff for advice on how to help their child.

Assessment of the Effective Schools Project is underway and will continue for a three year period through to the spring of 1989 (Southern Coalition for Educational Equity, 1986).

Special Summer Program

The Summer Program of SCEE concentrates on reading. Five weeks in length with three hours of reading each day, the program also exposes children to other areas of interest: arts, dance, drama, music, computers, creative writing, and swimming. Free breakfast and lunch are provided. Guest speakers, who are usually prominent citizens from the New Orleans area, are invited to discuss the importance of reading to reinforce student awareness of the need for basic skills.

The program has been termed a success since its inception in 1984 because reading comprehension scores of the students have risen. Representatives from a low achieving Hispanic school district in Colorado have recently chosen to implement the Summer Program in their area. Hopefully, this success will be replicated (Southern Coalition for Educational Equity, 1986).

Middle Schools/Junior High Schools

Skills for Adolescence

This program is a course for grades six through eight to emphasize prevention of drug and alcohol abuse as well as related problems. The central concept of the program is that such behavior patterns can be prevented before they begin; thus, the program is aimed at the 10 to 14 age group. The seven unit course can be taught in association with other curricula such as language arts, social studies, and health. Each unit has a theme; for example, healthy living, friends, self confidence, emotions, family relationships, the teen years, and critical thinking skills. Through reading, writing, sharing, and homework assignments, the themes are first taught and, then, reinforced. Consequently, skills in the following areas are covered: thinking, managing feelings, decision making, communication, and taking action (Quest National Center).

"Skills for Adolescence" has been adopted by more than 500 school districts throughout North America. Researchers have indicated that multimodal programs such as this, stem youth alienation and inappropriate behavior (Gerler, 1986).

Project Micro

Project Micro introduces parents, students, and their teachers to the uses of computers. Both poor and minority children comprise the student population. Through the computer, the students are not only taught the traditional basic skills but are learning the ways in which computers will affect them in the future. First, computers are used to teach computer literacy and, then, to teach analytical thinking skills through software and instruction.

Targeted institutions for the project have been three middle schools with large minority populations in downtown Atlanta, rural North Carolina, and downtown Mobile. These schools represent different areas of the South. In Mobile, the Computer Club started a successful word processing project to write the biographies of distinguished black community people. In Atlanta, students are working on an oral history of the neighborhood and are also creating a simulated space station using computer graphics.

Through Project Micro, the students have developed self-confidence and a positive image. Strengths of the project are that it encourages sex equity even though interest in computers enhances society's gender bias. Additionally, parents are encouraged to actively participate and to be trained in computers (Southern Coalition for Educational Equity, 1986).

New Orleans Effective Schools Project

Because few reforms zero in on the middle school level where early adolescence can determine a child's success, the Southern Coalition for Educational Equity (SCEE) created an effective school model that was implemented in 1982 at the Martin Behrman Middle School to promote academic achievement by focusing on reading comprehension. After three successful years with the model, Behrman has adopted the plan since students have made impressive gains in achievement.

Effective Schools research has indicated that children learn best in an environment wherein there are high expectations, a definitive discipline policy, and optimal instruction time; therefore, the school staff is involved in planning and decision making. Further, teachers are trained in small group instruction in multiple modes and classroom management.

Because of the success at Behrman, the New Orleans Public Schools have assumed managerial and fiscal responsibility for the Project and have placed it into four high-risk middle and junior high schools. High schools will eventually implement the program and are insured the cooperative support of SCEE, the New Orleans Public Schools, the United Teachers of New Orleans, and the community (Southern Coalition for Educational Equity, 1986).

Hine Junior High School

In the southeast area of the District of Columbia is Hine Junior High School where over 60% of the school population come from low-income families. Until the time when strong leadership was put into place under Principal Whitfield, enrollment had gone from 1,000 students to 296.

From her first day, Ms. Whitfield has visited neighborhoods and parents. She arranged for the school's walls to be sandblasted, classrooms to be painted, and broken windows to be mended. The top twenty troublemakers in Hine became hall monitors who keep order. An aide now handles all security: visitors must wear a badge, campus is closed during the lunch hour, and students must carry hall passes.

A strict discipline code is now in place whereby drug offenders are suspended and other lesser offenders are punished by in-school suspension. Students adhere to a dress code.

Because the curriculum has been upgraded, it now includes courses in the "Great Books", fine arts, and Latin (which is taught by Ms. Whitfield). Remedial programs are taught by the school's most capable teachers. Through incentive programs, children are encouraged to learn and achieve through reward. Finally, strong community ties ensure that the values the school teaches have been transmitted to life away from school.

Results are that attendance for both students and teachers has risen. Further, 60% of the pupils are now at or above grade level in reading or math (U.S. Department of Education, Schools that work, n.d.).

High Schools

STEP

The STEP Demonstration is a summer program that has been placed in five sites throughout the nation: Boston, Seattle, Portland (OR), Fresno, and San Diego. Initiated by the Ford Foundation, STEP aims at aiding economically/educationally disadvantaged 14 and 15 year olds to minimize the gap in their educational development that usually occurs over the summer months since research has indicated that disadvantaged students tend to lose more in skills than do their economically advantaged counterparts.

Over a period of two consecutive summers, STEP youth receive 90 hours of remedial instruction in reading and math. For 20 hours they attend life skills sessions. Remuneration for the participants is minimum wages for a full day, five days a week for six to seven weeks. As incentive, students are offered support during the school year, as well as a second summer of work and study if they successfully complete the first year.

Planned research is a component of the STEP program, and to date, data collected from three sites in the summer of 1984 indicate that the model could be effectively implemented in numerous local settings (Public/Private Ventures, 1987).

Bridge Project

The purpose of the Bridge project, which is another program of Public/Private Ventures, is to prevent ninth and tenth grade disadvantaged youth from dropping out of school and to help them make a comfortable transition between school and the work world. In January of 1987, four sites began serving twenty-five second semester ninth graders; the program will run through to their tenth grade summer. In January of 1988, a second ninth grade group will begin the two year program.

To enter the project, ninth graders must be at least two grades behind on standardized math or reading tests and at risk of dropping out. In addition, they must have met other criteria, such as having poor attendance, having been retained in grade at least once, and/or coming from families that meet the eligibility requirements of the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). Businesses and schools will have a commitment to the project because student wages will come from JTPA funds.

Having just been instituted, project data is not available to measure its impact, (Public/Private Ventures, n.d.).

Hales Franciscan High School

In the inner city of Chicago, about 300 young black men attend this high school which is run by a community of Franciscan friars. Most students come from single parent families, and 55% are below the national poverty level.

The goal of the school is to raise students out of poverty through education. The curriculum is rigid with few electives and offers fours years of English, three of math, three of science, three of history or social studies, two years of fine arts, and two of foreign language. Effective communication on both the spoken and written level is demanded and students are required to rewrite unsatisfactory papers. Two hours of homework are given every night. Religious and moral instruction help students to formulate ethical judgements and a sense of responsibility to society.

The results are that 90% of Hales Franciscan graduates move on to some form of higher education, and 75% enter four year institutions. Average daily attendance is 96% (U.S. Department of Education, Schools that work, n.d.).

George Washington Preparatory High School

Located in South Central Los Angeles, more than 65% of the students of George Washington High School are from low-income families. At one time, the situation was so bad in this school that more than half of the 1,800 students sought to be bused to other institutions.

Here, both parents and students are required to sign a contract. Some of the school rules include a dress code and an obligation to complete assignments. Parents must attend workshops on how to help their children and must visit the school at designated times. To avert disorder, the school has trained the students in nonviolence, based on the teachings of Gandhi and Martin Luther King, Jr. A parents' group raises money to improve the school plant. Teachers must not only assign homework but also must make daily calls to the homes of absentees. Enforcement of a strict discipline code is facilitated by "anti-graffiti" squads which scrub defaced walls and "hall sweeps" who discover students who are not in class and move them on their way. Additionally, the principal, George McKenna, replaced 85% of the faculty, established remedial and tutoring programs, and required frequent testing in all subjects.

As a result, George Washington Preparatory High School provides a safe environment in which to learn. Absenteeism was less than 10% in the 1985-86 school year, and 70% of its students now go on to college (U.S. Department of Education, Schools that work, n.d.)

New York City Dropout Prevention Program

A detailed supportive Dropout Prevention Program was funded in New York City in response to the 1985 statistics that showed a 42% dropout rate. When students hit stress points in their lives they are more likely to drop out; in New York City, the most likely stress point most likely to result in dropping out is the transition from junior high school to senior high school.

As a solution, New York City sees a new role for high schools...a role wherein the educational institution becomes a responsive social institution that is a source of help for students and their families. Using a team approach, the resources of the community are meshed to provide the adolescent with support. In addition, public and private agencies are relied upon. Parents are an integral part of the program and are considered central to success. Overall, the philosophy is to provide adolescents with caring adults who understand their needs and who will support them.

Programs that have been implemented include flexible schedules for both students and teachers, job development and placement for high school seniors, innovations in the curriculum, incentives for those who show effort and achievement, and part time employment that helps students achieve the transition from school to work. If a student has been absent for several months, transitional classes using innovative curriculum and computer assisted learning ease the re-entry to education. Tutoring and mentoring (a process in which older, at-risk students take responsibility for tutoring those who are younger) are additional techniques that are employed. With ten of New York City's high schools acting as pilot institutions for the dropout prevention program, New York hopes to stem withdrawal from school.

Two years after the program was put into place, the dropout rate in New York went from 42% in 1985 to 30% in 1987 (New York City Board of Education, n.d.).

Youth Opportunities Unlimited (Y.O.U.)

Y.O.U. targets disadvantaged 14-15 years olds who will be entering ninth or tenth grade in the fall and who are at risk of dropping out of school. Administered through the Coordinating Board of the Texas College and University System, students are exposed to academic and counseling services as well as work experiences. Further, their parents are oriented and involved in the program.

Funding comes through the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) and is made available to Private Industry Councils in the students' home area. The Councils then disburse it to Y.O.U.; additionally, resources and services from over 400 different federal, state, and local public and private agencies also meet the needs of the students. Evidence has shown that Y.O.U. is successful; 96% of all migrant student participants (2,000 in number) are either still in school or have graduated.

During the first two years that Y.O.U. was in place, student return rate to class was 100%. For those who have taken part in the program, their grades are well above average. Over 80% demonstrate significant gains in achievement, and over 90% of the students complete the summer programs (Youth Opportunities Unlimited, 1987).

Other

Crystal Run Envirnonmental Center

The Crystal Run Environmental Education Center at Spring Valley, New York, helps at-risk youth of all ages through programs that target education, jobs, and life skills. The center uses 110 acres of farm and forest to give students "hands-on" experiences with nature. Crystal Run has several facets: school programs, public program walks, public program workshops, teacher workshops, off-site programs, and an Explorer Scout Troop. In addition, the Job Training Program is for economically disadvantaged youth who are in need of employment support services and jobs. In this program, teenagers work in farming, forestry, carpentry, and the care of animals. A summer program for children ages 6-11 teaches responsibility through the pleasures of growing a garden or taking care of animals. Additionally, other activities such as swimming, the arts, storytelling, and foodmaking encourage positive growth experiences.

No research is available to assess the impact of the education center (Crystal Run, n.d.).

Development of Coping Skills

Friel and Holder (1980) have reported on a study in which disadvantaged youth were trained to cope in work settings. Ranging in ages from 14-21 years, the population was defined as economically disadvantaged by CETA standards. The youth either attended one of 20 school districts in Michigan or had dropped out of or graduated from secondary schools. The experimental group was made up of 71 participants who took the coping skills course and who had already participated in another form of work enhancement course. The control group was made up of 27 participants who did not take the coping skills course but may have participated in another form of work enhancement course.

An independent consulting firm, Carkhuff Associated, developed training materials to teach youth how to be successful in work and at school. Youth, teachers, parents, employers, and work experience coordinators were asked to determine what they thought were the needs of the young people. Through these determinations, twelve essential coping skills were identified: "being prepared, being polite, paying attention, asking questions, following directions, expressing problems, making decisions, completing tasks, accepting criticism, starting conversations, continuing conversations, and avoiding trouble" (Friel & Holder, 1980: 155-156).

Data extracted from the study compared three groups: youth who took part in a work preparation program of some kind (control); local economically disadvantaged youth who did not take part in the program; and the experimental group or those who had received the coping skills program and other forms of work preparation. Youth who took part in a work preparation program of some kind (control) dropped out at the rate of 3%, six months after the program had been completed. Local economically disadvantaged youth who did not take part in the program dropped out at the rate of 20%. Youth who had received the coping skills program and other forms of work preparation (experimental), did not drop out; moreover, in this group, there were no dropouts six months after the program had been completed (Friel & Holder, 1980).

As to unemployment comparisons, youth who took part in a work preparation program of some kind (control) experienced a 4.2% unemployment rate--generally, minority youth have an overall unemployment rate of 17% and 34%. For disadvantaged youth who had not taken part in any CETA programs, the unemployment rate was 40%. For the experimental group the unemployment rate was 0% (Friel & Holder, 1980).

Kentucky's Dropout Prevention Programs

Kentucky has a number of programs for grades K-12 that target youth-at-risk. An impressive monograph has been prepared by their State Department of Education to describe the ways in which Kentucky increases options for successful adolescents. Several of the programs have been included and descriptions follow (Kentucky Department of Education, n.d.).

STUDENT CENTERED

Project Title - Assertive Discipline

Project Director or Contact - Mrs. Pat Koch, Principal

Address: Whiteside Primary
800 Caldwell
Paducah, Kentucky 42001
(502) 442-1946

Target Group - We believe dropout prevention should begin in kindergarten. Children can learn to be responsible for their behavior at an early age. A good attitude toward learning is essential. All students are included in the target group which is composed of levels K-2.

Description - The staff at Whiteside School feels that children should learn to be responsible for their behavior; and that teachers' disciplinary requirements should be met in the classroom. The total staff (certified and classified) work together to reward children who "choose to do it right" and to withdraw privileges from those who choose not to obey the rules. Children who "choose to do it right" are stronger students academically and are happier and have better self concepts. Children respond well to praise and rewards and are easily motivated "to do it right." However, when children choose to misbehave, the teacher follows his/her assertive discipline plan in the room. If the child works his/her way through all steps of the classroom plan, he/she is then sent to the principal who puts his/her plan in operation which includes counseling the student, contacting the parent, and isolation in the in-school suspension center.

Evidence of Effectiveness -

The students, staff and parents have felt the positive effects of this program and cooperated in every way. Our students are developing a good attitude toward learning in kindergarten and know that "choosing to do it right" brings satisfaction and rewards. Our children become better students academically and do not develop as many negative traits which could lead to dropouts in later years. We firmly believe that dropout prevention should begin when the child first enters school.

COUNSELING/ADVISING

Project Title - Buddy Line System

Project Director or Contact - Julie Johnson, Teacher/Coordinator
Ruth Williams, President Parent-Teacher Assoc.

Address: Paintsville Elementary School
248 Second Street
Paintsville, Kentucky 41240
(606) 789-4511

Target Group - Any student may be referred to the Buddy Line System if the principal, teacher, or parent feels that he/she would benefit from involvement with a caring teacher who has volunteered to be a part of the project.

Description - The purpose of the project is to provide someone for students to discuss their concerns and/or problems with other than their assigned classroom teacher. The student's "buddy" meets with them for short periods of time during free periods and/or at times that best fits the student's schedule. Each student will be helped to attain a more positive self-image and become more academically successful.

Evidence of Effectiveness -

No attempt was made during the initial three months of this project to collect data which would reflect its effectiveness; therefore, no pre- and poststatistical comparisons can be made. Numerous case records are available, however, which attest to the positive impact that the program has had on practically every child or "buddy" that has been involved. Teacher and parent observations have also been rendered which indicate enthusiasm and praise for the program.

STUDENT CENTERED

Project Title - Curriculum-Based Guidance Program

Project Director or Contact - Jane Scarborough, Principal

Address: Mary G. Hogsett Elementary School
Waveland Avenue
Danville, Kentucky 40422
(606) 236-4852

Target Group - Any student, K-5, at Hogsett Elementary School that has been exposed to the curriculum-based guidance activities developed by the Department of Education, Division of Student Services.

Description - This project is designed on the premise that while traditionally schools have emphasized the development of cognitive learning and behavior in students, more recently educators have incorporated elements of an affective nature into the curriculum. More specifically, they have adopted various methods and materials to facilitate the learner's development of self-awareness, self-esteem, understanding, and acceptance of feelings, attitudes, values and relationships with others. While the characteristics and needs of potential dropouts vary, it is well known that factors such as low self-esteem, lack of understanding and acceptance of feelings, and the inability to relate to others influences a student's feelings toward wanting to leave school. The curriculum-based guidance program provides for activities in the realm of affective education and is a real key to dropout prevention.

Evidence of Effectiveness -

The entire staff of this school is committed to the premise that school should be a good place to be and that it is their responsibility to make it so, for students, parents, and staff. Implementing the curriculum-based guidance materials was viewed by the staff as a real asset and was felt to be a major factor in making this last school year a very positive and productive one. Student behavior and attendance were improved in a positive manner.

ALTERNATIVE CURRICULUM

Project Title - TOPS (Time-Out Program for Students)

Project Director or Contact - Lois Adams, Principal

Address: Henry County Middle School
P. O. Box 267
New Castle, Kentucky 40050
(502) 845-2348

Target Group - Any middle or high school student whose behavior has created a need on the part of the faculty to consider an out-of-school suspension, may be referred to Project TOPS as an alternative.

Description - The purpose of this project is to help students acquire social attitudes, values, and skills which will result in productive social behavior. The faculty looks beyond the overt behavior of the child to possible root problems which provides an opportunity to interact with students, rather than to merely react to specific instances of inappropriate behavior. By providing an in-school alternative to suspension, both interaction and follow-up may occur. Students are not penalized academically for their actions, which allows them to keep up with their school work. This project will decrease the dropout rate because students are less likely to get caught up on the unexcused absence, academic deficits, high frustration level cycle which accompanies the out-of-school suspension.

Evidence of Effectiveness -

Prior to "TOPS" Program, the high school had 17 days of out-of-school suspensions and none (0) since the program became effective. Prior to TOPS, the middle school had 21 days of out-of-school suspension and none (0) since the program became effective.

STUDENT CENTERED

Project Title - Daviess County Public Schools-Attendance Incentive Project

Project Director or Contact - Jim Lambert, Director of Pupil Personnel

Address: Daviess County Board of Education
Box 1510
Owensboro, Kentucky 42301
(502) 685-3161

Target Group - All students K-8 in the Daviess County schools have an opportunity to earn incentives for good attendance.

Description - Every student with perfect attendance during each 6-weeks grading period received FREE from Hardee's a hamburger, regular french fries, and a small drink. The student presented his/her coupon to Hardee's cashiers at the end of each grading period to receive their meal. Cashiers at Hardee's stamped the coupon with a small mark in the days present/absent location at the time of the presentation by the student. There was no cost to the school system; Hardee's only asked that the program be promoted to the student to be of value in improving attendance.

Evidence of Effectiveness -

Thirteen percent of the students had perfect attendance during the 1983-84 school year. The number of students with a perfect attendance record increased from 459 in the 1980-81 school year to 1,117 in the 1983-84 school year. This program has helped us increase on percentage of attendance to 96.58 which was fourth in the state.

APPENDIX D

At the time this research was completed, insufficient data from the Chapter 1 co-ordinators have been received to provide an adequate sampling of the data base.

SURVEY

320 Rackley Building
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802
(814) 237-9138
July 14, 1987

name of Chapter 1 co-ordinator, title
address
city, state, ZIP

Dear

I am conducting research for the National Commission on Employment Policy in Washington, DC. This research is part of the "Youth at Risk Project". Specifically, the Project will examine ways in which economically and educationally disadvantaged youth ages nine to fifteen can be better served.

As part of this research, it is necessary to identify federal programs that serve these youth as well as the ways in which state and local education units implement the programs.

This data will be used to help formulate future programs and their attendant federal appropriations. Your assistance will enhance Chapter I efforts.

Please take a few moments to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me. Any additional information will be most welcomed.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely

Karen Crispell Winters
Project Administrator

encl.: 1

state abbreviation

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer all questions for private and public institutions.

1. How many LEAs do you have in your state? __________

   What was the number of LEAs in your state with Chapter 1 programs in

   1980-81__________ 81-82__________ 82-83_______ 83-84__________

   84-85__________ 85-86__________ 86-87_______ 87-88__________

2. How many Chapter 1 programs does your state have? __________

   Does your state have any programs for educationally and economically disadvantaged youth other than those in Chapter 1? Please indicate the number. __________

   Has the number of Chapter 1 and other programs for the educationally/economically disadvantaged youth in your state increased or decreased since 1980-81? Please indicate a number (e.g. "+2" or "-2") __________

3. What is the number of students in your state? __________

   What is the number of students being served by Chapter 1? (unduplicated count) __________

   What is the number of economically/educationally disadvantaged youth being served by other programs in your state? __________

   What is the number of students being served by Chapter 1 and similar programs between the ages of 9-15? __________

   What was the total number of students being served by such programs in 1980-81? __________

4. How many full-time equivalent staff do you have monitoring Chapter 1 and similar programs? __________

5. What Chapter 1 programs does your state have?

What other programs does your state have outside of Chapter I that serve educationally and economically disadvantaged youth? Please attach descriptions of model programs within your state that serve economically/ educationally disadvantaged youth between the ages of 9-15.

(Please list answer on the back of this sheet or, if necessary attach additional sheets.)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONSIDERATION